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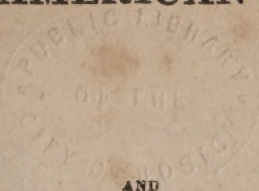
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NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW



MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

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NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

Hon. Edward Everett

Aug. 7, 1850

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL

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Ed. Everett

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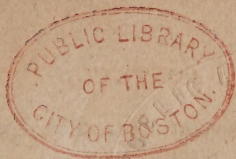
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NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

No. VII.

MAY, 1816.

The history of the wars of New-England, with the Eastern Indians, or a narrative of their continued perfidy and cruelty from the 10th of August, 1703, to the peace renewed 13th of July, 1713; and from the 25th of July, 1722, to their submission 15th December, 1725, which was ratified August 5th, 1726. By Samuel Penhalow, Esq.

Nescio tu quibus es, lector, lecturus ocellis,
Hoc scio, quod siccis, scribere non potui.

Boston, printed by T. Fleet, for S. Gerrish at the lower end of Cornhill, and D. Henchman, over against the Brick meeting-house in Cornhill, 1726.

THIS is a plain and minute account of the wars mentioned in the title. It contains a narration of much cruel suffering from the incursions of savages, who sometimes came even from Canada to join in this border war. It affords a lively, though distressing picture of the calamities to which frontier settlements are exposed. The present generation in Massachusetts, who cultivate their fields in peace and security, and never see an Indian except it be in some itinerant group, whose appearance and occupation are not unlike the Gypsies of Europe; can hardly realize that a century since, the musket was taken to the field with the plough, and the houses exposed to the torch, and the women and

children to the tomahawk of the savage, or to remote captivity. There are many families now existing, who may here find deeds performed by their progenitors, that in the office of a herald, would furnish the objects to emblazon the arms of a family.

This work is introduced with a preface from the Rev. B. Colman. We shall make an extract from this, as a specimen of the universal feeling of our ancestors, who identified their situation with that of the Jews; an illusion which had a very salutary influence on them; though when circumstances had wholly changed, it has caused some inconvenience and mischief to their posterity.

"It is one part of our honour and happiness in this country, among the many difficulties and troubles which have attended the settlements and growth of it unto this day, that there have not been wanting honest and worthy persons, and some learned, who have delivered down to posterity, a plain and true account of the wars which we have had with the Indian natives in one part of the land and in another.

"We owe much unto those, who have done us this service from the beginning, and they have herein served God as well as obliged the world. For it always has been, and ever is like to be, a grateful thing to mankind to be informed of the rise and growth of provinces, and of the sufferings of their feeble infant state: and from the days of Moses, who wrote the first history, the beginning of the world and of Israel, the wise and pious among men have scarcely known a more sacred pleasure, nor found a more profitable entertainment, than in tracing the footsteps and windings of Divine Providence, in the planting of colonies and churches, here and there through the earth.

"Nor let it seem vain in me to say, that in the settlement of the New-England churches and provinces, there have been some circumstances so like unto those of Israel of old, (after their entrance into Canaan) that I am persuaded no people of God under heaven, can sing of his mercies and judgments in the inspired phrase, with more direct and pertinent self application than we can do. The subject of the following book affords us the most special instance hereof; namely, that although our merciful and gracious God did in a wonderful manner, *cast out the Heathen* before our fathers, and *planted them*; *prepared also*

a room before them, and caused them to take deep root, and to fill the land, so that the vine hath sent out her boughs unto the sea, and her branches upon the river; yet to humble and prove us, and for our sins to punish us, the righteous God hath left a sufficient number of the fierce and barbarous savages on our borders, to be pricks in our eyes, and thorns in our sides, and they have been and are like the boar of the woods to waste us, and the wild beasts of the field to devour us.

“Wherefore, on principles both humane and religious, I gladly introduce the following memoirs to the public view, with my hearty thanks to the honourable author, for the great pains he has taken among other of his public services, to transmit the particulars of the two last wars with the Indian enemy down to posterity, *that the generation to come might know them, and set their hope in God, and not forget his works, but keep his Commandments.*

“The reader must not expect much entertainment or curiosity in the story of a barbarous war, with cruel and perfidious savages: it is the benefit of posterity, in a religious improvement of this dry and bloody story, that we aim at, in preserving some remembrance thereof: and that in times to come, when we are dead and forgotten, materials may remain for a continued and entire history of our country: and we hope, that they who come after us, will take the like care in their times, for the children which shall be born.

“Let it suffice in praise of the narrative, if the facts related be true and exact, and that the style be familiar, plain and easy, as all historical memoirs should be writ. As to the truth of it, none I suppose will have any doubt to whom the author is known; and to whom among us is he not known? or by whom among the lovers of the country is he not esteemed for his affectionate regards unto the religious and civil liberties of it?

“The Reverend Dr. Mather wrote the remarkables of the eastern war before this, from the year 1688, unto the year 1698, ten years, wherefore he called his book, *Decennium Luctuosum*. This book may claim the like title, for the first war here related, from August 10th 1703, to the 13th of July 1713, did also continue just ten years.”

One short extract from Mr. Penhallow's introduction will serve as a specimen of his manner.

"I might with *Orosius* very justly entitle this history, *de Miseria hominum*, being no other than a narrative of tragical incursions, perpetrated by bloody Pagans, who are monsters of such cruelty, that the words of Virgil may not unaptly be applied to them,

Tristius haud illis monstrum, nec sævior ulla
Pestis et ira deum.

Who are as implacable in their revenge, as they are terrible in the execution of it; and will convey it down to the third and fourth generation. No courtesy will ever oblige them to gratitude; for their greatest benefactors have frequently fallen as victims to their fury.

"The Roman spectacles of old were very lively in them repeated. God has made them a terrible scourge for the punishment of our sins; and probably that very sin of ours, in neglecting the welfare of their souls. For we have not expressed the like laudable care of them, as hath been done in the southern and western parts of the country. But indeed, we have rather aimed to advance a private trade, than to instruct them in the principles of true religion. This brings to my remembrance, a remarkable saying of one of their chief Sachems, whom a little before the war broke out, I asked, wherefore it was they were so much bigoted to the French? considering their traffick with them was not so advantageous as with the English. He gravely replied, "That the Friars taught them to pray, but the English never did."

There are fac-similes of the devices assumed by the Indian Chiefs, placed against their names, to two or three Treaties: these are an eagle, an otter, a fish, a snake in the act of springing, a tortoise, the sun and moon, &c. &c.

A narrative of the Indian wars in New-England, from the first planting thereof, in the year 1607, to the year 1677, containing a relation of the occasion, rise and progress of the war with the Indians, in the southern, western, eastern and northern parts of said country. By William Hubbard, A. M. minister of Ipswich. And the Lord said unto Moses, write this for a memorial in a Book, Ex. xvii. 14. Which we have heard and known and our fathers have told us, That the generation

to come might know them, even the children which should be born, who should arise and declare them to their children. Psal. lxxviii. 36. Boston, re-printed by John Boyle, 1775.

THIS work composed by the Rev. W. Hubbard, whose history of Massachusetts after remaining so long in MS. was recently published by the Historical Society, was first printed in 1677, as appears by an *imprimatur* signed by S. Bradstreet, D. Dennison, and I. Dudley, deputed by the Governour and Council to examine and license it. Although a history of this kind becomes fatiguing, from the constant repetition of ravages and massacres on so small a scale that they rather make villains than heroes, still there are many traits of romantick bravery, and relations of perilous adventures and escapes, that might furnish scenes of strong interest for a romance or a melo drama. Through the whole book there is a constant allusion to supposed parallel situations of the Hebrews; and it is frequently enlivened with classick quotations. The writer speaks with great harshness and abusive epithets of the Indians, and this is pardonable, when it is considered how the inhabitants were harassed by their horrible mode of warfare. Their houses burnt; not only men, but women and children murdered in cold blood; sometimes tortured, or carried into a captivity of the severest kind. In Philip's war, these calamities were spread over the whole country, and from Cape Cod to the Connecticut, from Rhode-Island to the Kennebeck, the whole country was alarmed, and villages in every part of it exposed to ravage and desolation.

Several of the Sachems who were the allies of the enemies of the first colonists, were men of remarkable character. Among those who were friendly, were Uncas, chief of the Mohegans, Canonicus of the Narragansetts, and Massasoit, the sachem of Mount-Hope; the latter, however, always shewing a strong aversion and enmity to the christian religion. Among those who were inimical, Sassacus, chief of the Pequods; Miantonimo, nephew of Canonicus of the Narragansetts; and Alexander and Philip, sons of Massasoit; over all whom Philip bore a fatal preeminence, by the energy, talents and implacable animosity he discovered, and the injuries he inflicted on the whites. In considering these characters, it should be recollected, that we

have only the representations of our own historians, who were highly exasperated against them; "the lions had no painters." The Sachems of Mount-Hope exercised a sovereignty over the neighbouring chiefs and tribes; whether this was owing to the mere accident of superior talent in Massasoit and Philip, or to some established right, does not appear.

In spite of savage manners, and the most deplorable cruelty in war, there was no want of sagacity in some of these untutored Indians. Thus the advice given by the Pequods* to the Narragansetts, when persuading them to have made peace with them, if they had succeeded in this would probably have destroyed the first colonies; as the author observes, "Machiavel himself, had he have sat in council, could not have insinuated stronger reasons." At page 127 and the following ones, there is a lively account of the capture of Canonchet; the conclusion of which, is extracted as a specimen of these Indian warriors. "One of the first English that came up with him, was *Robert Stanton*, a young man that had scarce reached the twenty second year of his age, yet adventuring to ask him a question or two, to whom this manly Sachem looking with a little neglect upon his youthful face, replied in broken English; "you much child, no understand matters of war; let your brother or your chief come, him I will answer;" and was as good as his word; acting herein, as if by a Pythagorean Metempsychosis, some old Roman ghost had possessed the body of this western Pagan; and like *Attilius Regulus*, he would not accept of his own life, when it was tendered him, upon that (in his account) low condition of compliance with the English, refusing to send an old counsellor of his to make any motion that way, saying, he knew the Indians would not yield; but more probably he was not willing they should, choosing rather to sacrifice his own and his people's lives to his private humour of revenge, than timely to provide for his own and their safety, by entertaining the counsels of a peace, so necessary for the good of all. He continuing in the same obstinate resolution, was carried soon after to Stonington, where he was shot to death by some of his own quality, and the young Sachem of the *Mohegins*, and two of the *Pequods* of like quality.

* Page 24.

This was the conclusion of a damned wretch, that had often opened his mouth to blaspheme the name of the living God, and those that made a profession thereof. He was told at large of his breach of faith, and how he boasted that he would not deliver up a *Wampanoag*, or the pairing of a *Wampanoag's* nail; that he would burn the English alive in their houses; to which he replied, others were as forward for the war as himself; and that he desired to hear no more thereof. And when he was told, his sentence was to die, he said he liked it well; that he should die before his heart was soft, or he had spoken any thing unworthy of himself. He told the English before they put him to death, that the killing him would not end the war; but it was a considerable step thereunto, nor did it live much longer after his death, at least not in those parts; for after Sudbury fight, when the sun of their hopes was at its highest, April 18th following, it visibly declined, till it set in a night of obscure and utter darkness upon them all, as is to be feared."

Among savages, the condition of woman is generally too degraded, to admit of their being often mentioned: they are only honoured and respected in a state of civilization, and the degree of civilization may be surely tested by the degree of respect and honour, which that sex receive from the other. There are some few occasions, where female Indians inspire some interest. The author is speaking of the complete overthrow of the *Pequods*; "Amongst the rest of the prisoners, special notice was taken of the wife of the noted Indian called *Mononotto*, who with her children submitted herself, or by the chance of war, fell into the hands of the English; it was known to be by her mediation, that two English maids (that were taken from Weathersfield upon Connecticut river) were saved from death, in requital of whose pity and humanity, the life of herself and her children was not only granted her, but she was in special, recommended to the care of that honourable gentleman, Mr. John Winthrop, for that time being the worthy Governor of Massachusetts; who taking notice of her modest countenance and behaviour, as well as of her only request (not to suffer wrong, either as to the honour of her body or the fruit of her womb) gave special charge concerning her, according to his noble and christian disposition."

There is a remarkable instance of bravery in a young girl, related at page 220; the occurrence took place in

Maine, and at the assault of a house, "wherein were fifteen persons, yet all women and children, who without doubt, had all of them fallen into the hands of the too cruel and barbarous caitiffs, had not a young maid of about eighteen years of age, first espyed them; who being endued with more courage than ordinarily the rest of the sex use to be, (the blessing of Joel light upon her) first shut to the door, whereby they were denied entrance, till the rest within escaped to the next house, that was better fortified; that young heroess kept the door fast against them so long, till the Indians had chopped it in pieces with their hatchets, when entering the house, they knocked the poor maid down with their hatchets, and gave her many other wounds, leaving her for dead upon the place; after which they passed on toward the next dwelling, in their way meeting with two children that had escaped the house first broken open by them, they killed one of them of three years old, which could not follow fast enough, or else they that carried it could not convey it soon enough over a fence to save themselves and it; and carried away the other of seven years old, which however, was returned safe within half a year after. The poor maid that had ventured her life so far to save many others, was by a strange Providence enabled to recover so much strength after they were gone as to repair to the next garrison, where she was soon after healed of her wounds, and restored to perfect health again."

Massasoit was the friend of the colonists, as before remarked, but held their religion in contempt. His sons *Alexander* and *Philip*, felt equal enmity to both. *Alexander* the eldest succeeded him, and was said to be secretly plotting against the Colony of Plymouth, when the government sent to summon him. This message was intrusted to Major Winslow, who conducted his mission with equal boldness and skill; while on his way to Mount-Hope, he met the Sachem, who was on a hunting party accompanied by eighty men; he got possession of their arms, and then at the head of his few followers, summoned him to the Governour's house. Excessively indignant, it was only by the advice of his chief counsellors that he consented to go, but his proud spirit was so irritated, that it threw him into a fever, and being unable to go, he promised to send his son as a hostage, and then departed for home, but died before he reached it. *Philip* succeeded him, and soon began to

develope his hatred. He procured all the tribes between the Connecticut, the Kennebeck, and the sea, to join against the Colonists; and waged a war of extermination. He appears to have been one of the most remarkable of all the Indian Sachems who encountered the whites. From the very imperfect accounts we have of him and those too from his enemies, he discovered great sagacity, great energy, and commanding superiority of character over all the neighbouring chiefs. He foresaw that his countrymen must waste before the whites, and made a desperate struggle to cut them off to the last man. But this was a contest between savage and civilized life, with their respective resources, in which the former must be inevitably vanquished.

The author, page 199, after mentioning the principal settlements then existing in Maine, says, they are situated on rivers, "whose streams are principally improved for driving of saw-mills, those late inventions so useful for the destruction of wood and timber, especially of fir trees, which do so abound in those coasts," &c. This passage would shew the saw mill to be an invention not very ancient.

Description Geographique et historique des costes de l'Amerique Septentrionale; avec l'histoire naturelle du Pais. Par Monsieur Denys, Gouverneur, Lieutenant General pour le Roy, et propriétaire de toutes les terres et isles qui sont depuis le Cap de Campseaux, jusques au Cap des Roziers. A Paris chez Louis Bellaine, 1672. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 750.

The first volume of this work contains a description of the harbours and coasts, included between the capes named in the title, which whole country was claimed by the author, under a grant from a company established in France. The second is a minute account of the Fisheries and all the preparations made in prosecuting them, with some account of the wild inhabitants biped and quadruped, of those regions. None of these accounts are now very interesting. It appears that the different French proprietors made war upon each other, destroyed the forts and buildings constructed by each other, and conducted their own private undertakings, as if possessed of sovereign rights, with impunity. It was several years after the first attempts at settlement were

made, before the government at home put an end to this anarchy.

In the first volume, page 67, there is an account of La Tour the elder, who having married a lady of the court of England, received the order of the Garter, and was sent on an expedition to persuade his son to surrender the possession he held on the coast to the English government. The son refused to receive him, and his fortress was then besieged by the father, aided by soldiers, sailors, and cannon landed from the ships, but without success. After the loss of several lives, the siege was raised, and the elder La Tour being afraid to return to either France or England, solicited hospitality of his son, who built a house for him outside of the fort, and treated him with kindness and respect, except, that he would never permit him to come within the fort. Madame La Tour came to Boston to solicit succours, and is mentioned by Hubbard. She appears to have been an extraordinary woman; the whole of this episode of the La Tours, is perhaps, the most interesting thing in the history of Nova Scotia.

The following extract is a translation from page 33, volume 1, relating to a rock of Lapis Lazuli, which would be worth seeking if the whole be not a fable. "From the last bay in going to the river St. John, there are nothing but rocks for six or seven leagues, the coast is very dangerous, and about three fourths of a league outside of the Island of Menan, there is a rock which is only uncovered once in six or seven years, which by what the savages relate, is Lapis Lazuli: I saw a piece of it which they made a present of to the late commander, De Razilly, who sent it to France to be shewn, where it was declared to be real Lapis Lazuli, of which blue might be made that would be worth ten crowns the ounce. They tried to persuade the savages to shew where the rock was, but they never would indicate the spot, however much they were promised, but only that it was near Menan, as I have said."

Near the Island of *Miscou*, not far from bay Chaleur he describes a remarkable spring. He says there is no fresh water in the district, which he is describing, but, "at one hundred paces from the coast, there comes up from the bottom of the sea a strong spring of fresh water, in a column, six or eight inches in diameter, which keeps its freshness for a circuit of twenty paces, without mixing at all

with the salt water, either by the ebbing or flowing of the tide, so that this spring rises and falls with the tide; the fishermen go to it to fill their water casks, dipping it up with a bucket into the boats, as if it was the reservoir of a fountain; at the lowest tides there is always a fathom depth of water along side of this extraordinary spring."

[We are much gratified in being able to present the following Discourse to the publick. The sound judgment and solid acquirements of the honourable author, have made every friend of learning hail the acquisition of the new Professor as a most fortunate event. The remarks on the early state of the law and its followers in this country, and on the Common Law, will be read with particular interest.]

Inaugural Address delivered in the Chapel of Harvard University, by the Hon. Isaac Parker, Chief Justice of Massachusetts, and Royall Professor of Law.

Mr. President, Gentlemen of the Corporation, and
Gentlemen of the Board of Overseers,

IN publickly accepting the trust which you have done me the honour to confide to me, I have given a pledge that to the utmost of my power I will endeavour to accomplish the design of this institution, and promote the honour and interest of the University to which it is attached.

It will not become *me* to make apologies, nor you to receive them; and I ought not to magnify the difficulties of a task *voluntarily* assumed, with a view to bespeak favour, if your reasonable expectations shall be disappointed.

That indulgence, however, which by the candid and enlightened is bestowed upon first efforts, in a new and untried course, I shall claim, and have no doubt shall receive.

Like all incipient institutions, *this* must be imperfect in the outset; like them it may, however, be improved in its progress, and *at least*, in future time and in other hands, may grow into a system, honourable to the University, and highly useful to the publick.

In the rapid growth of this revered seminary, from a school to a college, and from that to an University, keeping pace with the advancement of the Commonwealth of which it has ever been the FAVOURITE CHILD, as well as the faithful nurse; it has been thought difficult to account for

so late an introduction of jurisprudence among the sister sciences, which have long flourished here under the patronage of the publick.

The other learned professions have, from time to time, received enough of publick and private encouragement, to admit of their being taught here by eminent professors, whose labours have been highly creditable to the University, as well as beneficial to the student; while *the Law*, so interesting to the whole community, and the final pursuit of so many who are educated in this place, has been hitherto excluded; not, I should hope, because it is deemed unworthy of being classed among the subjects of liberal education; but for want of that countenance and support, which have been so munificently bestowed upon the other sciences.

The publick neglect of so important a branch of education may be traced to causes in no way disreputable to the science of jurisprudence in its present improved condition, or to the wisdom and discernment of those who have governed the affairs of the University.

In the dispensations of Providence towards nations, we find a wise adaptation of intellectual powers to existing circumstances, always leaving room for progressive improvements and gradual advances, until that stage is reached, beyond which the capacities of a nation, like the faculties of the individual, are not permitted to pass, and from whence the period of decline may be supposed generally to commence.

In their youth, when industry is the prevailing character and principal want, that course of education, and those facilities of acquiring knowledge, which lead to the retired speculations of the closet, and separate the class of men which thinks, from that which only acts, would obstruct rather than promote the progress of improvement: for the *labour of all* is wanted under such circumstances, to *conquer* difficulties and procure comforts.

The division of labour, so useful in mechanick operations, *in full grown societies*, could not usefully exist in the early incipient state of a community, nor can the occupations of the mind be perfectly and usefully divided, until a full population shall have demanded an appropriation of employment, and superiour skill in produce. In spare settlements, and in a new country, the general mass of knowledge, except what pertains to the higher branches of philosophy, is perhaps, as great as in more mature societies; for each

individual embraces a greater number of subjects in the former than in the latter state: but for want of exclusive attention to single objects, less perfection in each particular art or science is reached in a young, than in an older community.

The course of education in this country has been wisely adapted to the actual state of things, and until *recently* has been calculated to give a competent portion of general knowledge, rather than to produce extraordinary instances of wonderful attainment.

Professorships of particular branches of sciences, have therefore been but lately introduced, except in Theology, which in an enlightened christian country, is deservedly the first object of public patronage, and in the demonstrative sciences, which are at all times necessary. Our students have been educated for *business*, not for contemplation, and the rare opportunities which have yet occurred, of devoting a life to literary or scientific pursuits, have justified the slow advancement of this University to that grade of eminence, which the establishments of older countries have so long enjoyed.

But the means of education are multiplying and developing, in proportion to the increasing demands of our rapidly improving society.

Next to the care of the soul, has been justly estimated the preservation of life and health; professorships for instruction in the various branches of the healing art, have therefore succeeded those of Theology, and it ought not to be considered as out of the natural course, that thirty years should have intervened between the admission of those necessary sciences into the University, and the establishment of jurisprudence as a branch of academick education.

Our Commonwealth has now got beyond its infancy, and its institutions are fast advancing to the perfection which accompanies maturity.

The recent establishments which public and private munificence have authorized, have already, under a wise and vigorous administration, given Harvard the *qualities* as well as the name of an University. Her fame will be durable, for it rests on the broad basis of publick utility. The sciences will here flourish, for they will be nurtured by free inquiry. The happiness of enlightened men will be here promoted; and the *true honour* of the country, springing

from a diffusion of correct principles, manly erudition and cultivated taste, will acknowledge this venerable seminary, as its fountain.

In times past, with fewer advantages, it has poured forth its annual stores of intelligence and virtue to improve and adorn the state. Theologians, Statesmen, Physicians, Jurists, have from time to time received here the elements of that learning, wisdom and patriotism, which have shed a lustre almost unparalleled, on so young a country.

May we not, without vanity, indulge the anticipation, that American literature and science and arts will hereafter stand high, if not pre-eminent in the world of intellectual and moral improvement, and that this western hemisphere, but yesterday a forest, is destined at some future period, to invigorate and fertilize the decaying seminaries of a then decaying world, and thus to remunerate Europe for the encouragement and brilliant example she gave to the *infancy* of this aspiring country.

The time has already arrived, when the rich and munificent discern, that the only durable monument of fame, and the only imperishable application of overflowing funds, is the endowment of this general parent of their country's hope, with the means to instruct and embellish in all the literature and science of the age. Patriotism thus exhibits itself without suspicion of its motive, *for generations unborn* are to enjoy its benefits; and centuries hence, the names of those who have thus added to the stores of human knowledge and virtue, will be celebrated and blessed, while the deeds of such as have founded *their fame* on the *miseries* of the world, will be remembered only to be execrated.

Here, *within these walls*, the moral strength of our country is to be formed, and its literary reputation matured. A few years hence, when most of us shall have passed out of the active scenes of life, this interesting mass of youth dispersed over our towns and villages, will occupy the pulpits, the chambers of the sick, the bar, the bench of justice, the seats of the legislature, the hall of Congress, the chair of state. Multitudes succeeding them, will press upon and follow their steps; it will depend upon the principles here imbibed, whether this copious stream shall *fertilize* or *ravage* society; upon the *instruction* they shall here receive, whether they shall honour or disgrace the cause of learning in their country. Upon **THEM** will rest the character of the

state, and in a great degree the happiness of its members. How important then to fence round and vigilantly guard this fruitful nursery of valuable plants ; to *enrich it*, that its productions may be healthy and vigorous, so that when they shall be transplanted, they may exhibit the beauty and order of cultivation, instead of the wildness and irregularity of nature, or the sickliness and deformity of neglect.

I pass to some observations on the nature of jurisprudence, and its different character in different periods of our civil history, in order to account for the omission of it, until this period, as a branch of publick education.

In the rude stages of every society, the laws are simple and clear, with few objects to operate upon, requiring little knowledge to comprehend and little learning to explain them. As natural law or reason, is in such circumstances almost the only code, and this too, without the refinement which more advanced stages require, the man of *superiour mind* without technical skill, is the patron and advocate of his neighbour, and the best *moralist* is perhaps the best lawyer of his circle.

For the first century of our history, we learn little of law and lawyers, but the simplicity of one, and the insignificancy of the other.

The profession was probably followed by men of low minds and lower reputation, whose efforts were limited to the mechanical drudgery of the craft, by which they were able to outwit their more simple neighbours, and create for themselves estates, at the expense of their reputation. In all periods of society, those who practice the law without a knowledge of its principles, are the most mischievous, as well as the most degraded class of the community.

That this was the character of the practitioners of that day, may be gathered from an examination of our early records, and from the historical facts, that they were stigmatized by the colonial legislature as "*usual and common attornies*," and, as such, were contemptuously rendered ineligible into the councils of the colony. The profession of the law was undoubtedly then considered odious, and jurisprudence was probably unknown as a science.

Possibly some few of a higher cast of character, attended the superiour tribunals ; but, at a time, when a classical education and law learning were not deemed essential qualifications for a judge, it may be supposed, that those who served

at the bar were but little distinguished by scientific attainments. And it was not until after the charter of king William in 1692, that professed lawyers, were advanced to the seats of justice.

Those were days without doubt of quibble and chicane, when the *spirit* of law was sacrificed to its letter, and when the people ensnared by unintelligible forms, abhorred a system which would seem to them a mysterious juggle, calculated to hoodwink justice, and to enable the subtle and unprincipled to prey upon the simple and ignorant.

So little reliance was placed upon the knowledge or the honour of those who practised at the bar, that the legislature, at a later period, again interposed, and by a formal act, required that the attorney who should furnish his client with a defective writ, should supply him with another without an additional fee.

In such a state of things, law could not be deemed a science, and a proposition to teach it in the college, would probably have been received with as much horror, as a scheme to instruct in magick or the black art. The profession had not risen above the character of attorneys or scribes, and a scientific course of study would have been as irksome, as it was wholly useless.

In this profession, as in the others which are dignified with the epithet of learned, empiricism first seizes the ground which is afterwards occupied by literature and talent. It is only when the society is enlarged and improved, and its members become intelligent and informed, that bold and ignorant pretenders give place to the skilful and scientific; and it is not until then, that a specific course of education is deemed requisite.

I have spoken now of the earliest part of our history, when legislation was limited to few objects, and those in present contemplation of inconsiderable importance.

It is true, our ancestors brought with them that complex mass of juridical wisdom, the common law of England, which to understand, required no little diligence and research, but they seem to have brought it rather as a store for future use than for immediate application.

They legislated for themselves, and their minute attention to the existing wants of a young and poor community, almost superseded the use of the common law.

It was only when property became separate and valuable, and commerce had begun to polish the rough face of affairs, or when their civil and political rights were brought into jeopardy, that the invaluable principles of that venerable code excited attention and commanded the reverence of the community.

But when this favourable change had taken place ; although jurisprudence undoubtedly assumed a higher rank, yet, from the silence of history, and the utter want of biographical notice of eminent jurists, we may conclude, that until a few years before the revolution, law was considered rather as a trade than a science, and its professors viewed as cunning artificers rather than as profound jurists.

The only name handed down in the first century of our short but interesting story, as distinguished for its connexion with the law, is that of *Read*, who about the year 1750, vindicated with earnestness and ability the rights and interests of his country. The practitioner may yet, by repairing to his manuscript of forms, find the name of *Read* to many well digested precedents, and there is none before him to assist us in obtaining a juridical history of our country.

The first period, however, in which jurisprudence seems to have taken an exalted rank, and demanded of its professors elevated character and respectable learning, was that which immediately preceded the revolution.

Without doubt, the approaching dismemberment of the colonies from the parent country, had enlarged the minds and invigorated the faculties of the lawyers of that day, for we always find that a great political crisis produces extraordinary efforts of the human understanding.

The constant claim of prerogative on one side, and privilege on the other, required a knowledge of the *rights* and *duties* of the subject in those, who presented themselves for royal patronage or popular favour.

Profound discussions of the principles of free governments, the duty of submission and the right of resistance, sharpened the faculties and exercised the wits of the most distinguished lawyers, to which class of the community these discussions were almost entirely left.

The nature of the social compact, the extent and true object of political power, the *inalienable* rights of man, the questionable authority of kings, and the before unques-

tioned supremacy of Parliament, had become fashionable topics of debate. Learning of all kinds, especially political, moral, and juridical, was necessary, in order to support with reputation, the conflict between contending parties.

The public mind was strained to an unnatural avidity for learned essays, and profound disquisitions; and the *Gazettes* of that day contain abundant proof of the historical, political and professional knowledge of the popular and prerogative lawyers. *Otis, Adams, the Sewalls, Trowbridge, the Quinceys*, honoured the profession of which they were distinguished members; and it cannot be doubted that the law was then deemed a science, worthy the most enlightened minds to learn, and honourable for the most dignified institution to teach.

The troubles and derangements occasioned by the war, and the distress and poverty which ensued, prevented that regular advancement in jurisprudence, which so respectable a beginning had promised, but after a few years of retrograde rather than advancing movement; a new galaxy of jurists, chiefly sons of Harvard, arose to shed lustre upon their profession, and claim for it an elevated rank among the sciences.

I need only speak of the dead, to prove, that profound wisdom, learning, classical taste and philosophical research, are among the essential requisites and ornaments of a finished legal character.

Cushing, Dana, Lowell, Strong, Sedgwick, Parsons and Sewall, would have been honoured in any country and in any times. To a familiar knowledge of our municipal regulations, most of them added an extensive acquaintance with other sciences, and the law as understood and administered by them, was a comprehensive system of human wisdom, derived from the nature of man in his social and civil state, and founded on the *everlasting basis* of natural justice and moral philosophy.

The reputation of the profession is still pursued by a succession of elevated minds, who, catching and improving the light which has emanated from the brilliant luminaries of another hemisphere, distribute its rays over their own country, and will banish for ever the effects of that dark and gloomy reign of ignorance and chicane, which disgraced the early period of our juridical history.

Well may the law now be denominated a science, and deemed worthy of a place in this University, for it embraces every thing most interesting to the human mind, except its future and eternal destiny.

It prescribes the duties and ascertains the rights of the citizen, sets limits to the powers of government, gives redress for wrongs, security to possessions, safety to the reputation, and tranquillity to the body politic.

It encourages industry, by guarding its fruits, promotes enterprise by protecting its gains; watches over the nuptial state, binds together parent and child, and establishes the relation of master and servant.

It enforces the performance of contracts, or punishes their breach, regulates the transfer of property, and provides for its transmission to remote posterity.

It presides over the morals of the State by demanding the instruction of youth, and it has respect to a future world, by establishing the *worship of God*.

It assumes also the character of an avenger, restraining the wicked, punishing the guilty, and depriving of liberty, estate and life.

These are the principal features of municipal law; which is only one, though the most important branch of jurisprudence.

But this comprehensive science looks beyond the territory over which it immediately reigns, and establishes connexions with distant communities, breathing war or peace, as the interests of its subjects may require, fixing rules of conduct upon the ocean, and prescribing bounds to the exercise of power in distant regions. This is the substance of public law, or the law of nations.

A science like this, is worthy to be taught, for it cannot be understood without instruction; it should be admitted into fellowship with its sister sciences, for like theirs, its ends are noble. Its fundamental and general principles should be a branch of liberal education, in every country, but especially in those where freedom prevails, and where every citizen has an equal interest in its preservation and improvement. Justice ought therefore to be done to the memory of *Royall*, whose prospective wisdom, and judicious liberality, provided the means of introducing to the University the study of the law. Let us hope, that the

practical advantages which he proposed, may result from the attempt by this professorship to develope them ; so that future benefactors may perceive, that an extension of the system which he could only imitate, is one of the best means of serving their country.

I would not be understood, however, to suggest, that a complete education for the practice of the law, would be useful during the academick course. So various is the reading, and so multiplied the researches which this would require, that it could not be pursued without prejudice to other studies, not less essential to the scholar.

A course of preparatory study, however, could be demonstrated, and general principles exhibited to the advantage, not only of those, who are destined to the profession, but of young men of all professions ; for to all will the knowledge of the fundamental principles of government, and the theory of jurisprudence be necessary, to complete a liberal education.

In a state like ours, where political honours and trusts are indiscriminately open to the attainment of all classes and all professions, where the rulers are amenable to the people for a due execution of their trust, and where the citizens are the guardians of the constitution, which is the source, and contains the limits of authority : so much of the theory of government and laws should be known by all men of liberal education, as will enable them to become intelligent asserters of civil *rights and liberty*, and enlightened supporters of the just exercise of power.

Tyranny would be often checked in the outset, and faction defeated of its purposes, if the liberal minded and liberally educated should, with the virtue of republicans, unite a competent knowledge of the rights and duties of the citizen, for the multitude is commonly but an instrument, to be *guided* by the exposure of truth, or abused by the arts of the fraudulent and ambitious.

To preserve our happy community in the pure exercise of its free institutions, is well worth the pains of those who preside over the education of that portion of our youth which is destined to sustain the honour, and if properly instructed, to perpetuate the freedom of their country.

But although it would now be generally admitted, that the law in its present state, may be justly deemed a science

which without labour and learning cannot be understood, yet it is sometimes objected, that it has become so by the fault of legislators, in neglecting to establish a simple system of rules, intelligible to the most common minds; for the rules, it is said, by which every citizen is to be bound in the common concerns of life, ought to be free from intricacy and familiar to all.

Without doubt, a concise and perfect code, comprehending all the social duties and the penalties for violating them, and embracing every exigency which the interests and business of the citizen might create, would be useful, if it were possible to be obtained.

But human foresight has hitherto been, and probably will continue to be, too short to accomplish so great an object, and if accomplished, the infinite regulations, which the complicated concerns of society require, would be beyond the comprehension of the greater portion of the community, so that still the law would remain a science for the few to understand and practise.

There have been in times past, attempts by great and enlightened minds to establish perfect and perpetual codes, which should relieve the labour of research and limit the necessity of legislation, but they have generally proved abortive; and it seems now to be received as a political axiom, that complexity of laws is the price of freedom, and that despotism alone is equal to the task of establishing a simple and invariable standard for the regulation of the infinitely varied concerns of man.

In the latter days of the Roman empire, the Herculean labour of collating and digesting the numerous laws which had emanated from various sources, from the time of the first kings, through the period of the Republick and down to the reign of Justinian, was committed by that emperor to the most profound jurists of his courts, and such of the laws as were deemed salutary, were promulgated anew by Imperial authority; still, however, new decrees, receipts and edicts were almost daily wanted, and the task of the legislator seemed to have been but little relieved by the industry of the compilers.

The complication, was however, useful, for in the multitude of codes, which existed within the Empire, many of them obsolete, and some contradictory to each other; and

especially, as for want of the art of multiplying copies by printing, great ignorance must have prevailed among all, but the few who devoted themselves to the study of jurisprudence; a digest and an Imperial promulgation of it became highly necessary.

The task too, was rendered comparatively easy, by absolute authority in the Prince, whose will was the law of the empire, and who could at pleasure abolish or confirm so much of the existing codes as he should approve or reject.

With us, the necessity does not exist, nor would the work be so easy. Already we have compilations as perfect and as concise as those which were made by the illustrious Tribonian and his associates, which, though not prepared under legislative sanction, have received an authority from adoption and use, which cannot now be questioned; and composed as our legislature is, it would be difficult, if not impossible, to select, compare, and digest with so much accuracy, as to render it safe to abolish the code of the common law.

The celebrated commentaries of Blackstone, present, in beautiful arrangement, the principal features of the common law; and though older and less systematick books must still be studied by those, who have the laudable ambition to trace principles to their origin, and follow up modern decisions to the precedents on which they are founded; yet much of the difficulty of acquiring a knowledge of this common law, is removed by that invaluable performance.

What then is the common law, which has been the theme of so much admiration, both in Europe and in this country, except with a few, who are ignorant of its character, or jealous of its origin?

It is a vast amalgamation of principles, axioms and precedents applicable to every relation of life, and containing, though in a rude and undigested mass, the learning and experience of ages. Labour and diligence are necessary to prepare the ore, which contains the precious metal, but the prize, when obtained, is an ample recompence for the toil.

It is the recorded wisdom of times which are past, drawn from every civilized country in ancient and modern times, and modified to the circumstances of our country, having the sanction of immemorial usage for its authority. It is

in truth, common sense and sound reason, reduced to system and practice, the result of the researches and profound meditations of the wisest sages of every civilized nation.

It is that body of rules, principles, and maxims, which are not to be found in any formal legislative act, but exist in the records of courts, in the treasured opinions of wise and learned judges, in the writings and essays of reverend sages. It contains the fundamental principles of civil liberty. The rules by which property is acquired, transferred and transmitted, those by which our persons are secured from outrage, our reputations from reproach, and our memories from dishonour. It provides punishments for the guilty, and protection for the innocent, prescribes limits to the judge, give authority to the jury, and suggests principles to the legislature.

It contains, in short, remedies for all wrongs, determines the competency of witnesses, settles the form and force of deeds and other instruments, the nature and true construction of contracts, and finally is the basis and security of all the objects, for which civil government was instituted, and is supported and preserved.

Our ancestors wisely cherished it, as the best defence of their civil liberty and political rights. The people of our Commonwealth expressly adopted it, and gave it a constitutional sanction; it is therefore, the *Common Law of Massachusetts*, and if its ancient name, the *Common Law of England* be odious to some, who are weak enough to quarrel with the substance on account of the sound; let it be cherished as *our own law*, and let it bear a less offensive appellation.

Let the legislature, from time to time, as they have heretofore done, repeal such parts, as change of circumstances may render inconvenient, or simplify those which may be obscure; but the venerable mass ought to stand for ever, to provide for unseen emergencies, and even to correct defective legislation.

But let us beware of hasty innovations, and be contented with the general safety and certainty afforded by the laws as we now enjoy them. The most comprehensive list of statutes, which political ingenuity could devise, would leave innumerable cases unprovided for, and resort must still be had to the wisdom of ancient times, for remedies to reach continually

increasing and changing mischiefs, or for explanation of intricate and obscure provisions. Thus, statutes to replace the common law entirely, would soon become more voluminous, and probably much more confused, than that law itself, and the mere explanation of terms of art, or technical words, which in many instances, contain within themselves complicated propositions, familiar and intelligible to the lawyer of common learning, would be a task as arduous for the legislature, as it would be unprofitable for the community.

Nor is it, as some have pretended, derogatory to the just pride of an independent nation, to introduce into its system a code originally foreign. It is but following the example of all nations, who professed to be governed by laws, and not by the will of their rulers.

France adopted and always regulated her tribunals by the civil law of the Romans, except in provinces, where particular local customs prevailed, until their late despot established the *code Napoleon*, for which its compilers were principally indebted to the same body of laws which they affected to supersede. And even this very common law of England, which we have adopted, does not owe its origin and growth entirely to the country from which it received its name. The Danes, the Saxons, the Normans, have successively aided in the erection of this ancient code, the customs even of the Goths and Vandals have given strength and durability to some of its parts, and the Roman institutions have been called in to polish and adorn it. Nor indeed, can we look to any of *those nations* as its exclusive founders, for Rome sent her wise men to Greece, to study the laws and customs of its renowned republics, and to import the choicest of them into that proud and aspiring city. Greece sought instruction from the priests and sages of Egypt, and these last, without doubt, borrowed the then accumulated wisdom of the world which had preceded them.

Thus, the experience of mankind has been from age to age contributing to a system, which grows more perfect as the world improves, and will probably pass down to innumerable generations as the basis of their civil institutions; altered, repaired and embellished, as future circumstances may require, but never proscribed, except by visionaries.

who would barter the wisdom of ages for the experiments and vagaries of projectors.

Honour then is due to the memory of those, who had the wisdom to consecrate to justice, in this country, a temple which had stood the shock of ages, and received successive improvements from the hands of skilful artists, instead of trusting to the fancy of inexperienced projectors, to erect a new one upon its ruins.

I hope I have not been tedious in this developement of the principles, and eulogy of the merits of the common law.

To an audience composed of the present guardians of our country's hope, and of those who are to be its future pride and honour, I thought the subject a suitable one; especially as it is intimately connected with the object of the institution, which has been this day put into operation.

With a brief exposition of the plan, which, after some hesitation, I have adopted for my course of lectures, I shall relieve your attentions.

It is obvious, that in the short course of lectures, of which the present state of the institution will admit, nothing like a law education can be attempted; and indeed, I am satisfied, after reflection upon the subject, that such an attempt, if practicable, would not be useful for undergraduates, who cannot devote the time necessary for any tolerable proficiency, without too great an abstraction from other studies, most of which are essential prerequisites to the study of the law.

At some future time, perhaps, a school for the instruction of resident graduates in jurisprudence may be usefully ingrafted on this professorship; and there is no doubt, that when that shall happen, one or two years devoted to *study only*, under a capable instructor, before they shall enter into the office of a counsellor, to obtain a knowledge of practice, will tend greatly to improve the character of the bar of our state. A respectable institution of this sort in a neighbouring state, unconnected with any publick seminary, has been found highly advantageous in the education of young gentlemen to the law.

Probably the superiour means which might be enjoyed here under the patronage of the University, would render it unnecessary to seek those opportunities of knowledge in

another state, which it is thought cannot, at present, be found at home.

The constant engagement of the most eminent counsellors in indispensable business, renders it difficult for them to devote that portion of their time to instruction, which would seem to be necessary for a science, which is intricate and abstruse to inexperienced minds.

Some improvement, therefore, in professional education, seems to be wanting; and perhaps it can in no better way be obtained, than by establishing a school here under the protection of the University, as preparatory to that acquisition of practical knowledge of business, which may always be better learnt in the office of a distinguished counsellor.

Under a strong conviction, that the minds of the young men to whom my lectures are to be principally addressed, are not in a proper state to receive any benefit from an immediate introduction to an acquaintance with legal forms, practice, or even detailed principles of jurisprudence; and that if this were attempted, the number of lectures which are expected in the present state of the professorship, would be but a skeleton or synopsis of the necessary course of study, I have concluded to adapt my course to circumstances, and to treat of such general subjects as may come within the most comprehensive definition of the science, which I have engaged to instruct. I have not forgotten too, that probably one half of my stated audience will be composed of young men, who are not destined to the profession of the law, and yet will be desirous of acquiring some general knowledge of the principles of civil polity, of jurisprudence and of the machinery of Courts of Justice. The general principles therefore of our system of Justice, and of civil government; the history of our jurisprudence and its changes, from the first settlement of the country to the present time; an account of the several codes which are used and practised in our Courts of Justice, and constitute our common Law; all important departures from this system, whether occasioned by long usage or statutable provisions; the principles and practical operation of the constitution of the United States and of this Commonwealth; the nature and extent of judiciary power; the organization of our Courts of Justice; the character and office of Judge and Jury; the domestick relations of civil society,

with a brief history of the titles to real estate in this country, will form the chief subject of my lectures, during the present season. These too must be imperfect, because of the little time I have been able to withdraw from other indispensable engagements, since I received notice of this appointment.

Indeed, I should have asked for more time before my publick instruction commenced, had I not thought that the present senior class was entitled to the best efforts, which, under existing circumstances, I could make. I shall trust to publick candour for my first attempts to carry into effect the designs of this professorship, and to my future industry, to improve, alter, and enlarge the several treatises, and perhaps substitute others, for some which may not have been well chosen, or well executed, according to my future judgment, and the advice I may from time to time receive, from those who feel an interest in the honour of the University, and the welfare of the students.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

SIR,

I have reflected for some time on a subject of considerable interest, and I will cheerfully condense the result of these reflections, for your Journal, if it would accord with your views. I could perhaps do this most conveniently in the form of a memoir, on the *Antiquity of the United States*. It is an opinion very generally received, that this nation is a very youthful one; but I am induced to believe, that it is, on the contrary, one of the most ancient nations on the globe. As it will require considerable labour to concentrate the proofs of this position, which have occurred in my investigations, I should first wish to know, if such a paper would be acceptable; if it be agreeable to you, I will prepare it for some future number.

To the Editor.

[We shall be glad to receive the paper mentioned by our correspondent, though we cannot give an absolute pledge to insert it beforehand. We can however have very little doubt, that the learning, which must be requisite in a research of this nature, will form a valuable article for this Journal, though it may be too dry for a part of its readers.]

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

SIR,

I have lately received, from a friend in Italy, the following relation of the landing of Murat in Calabria. An account of this event has appeared in the newspapers; but there are many particulars in the inclosed paper, that give a lively impression of the catastrophe which terminated the career of the ex-king of Naples. Murat, like Ney, furnishes an instance, that great military talents may exist, in connexion with the greatest want of discretion, character and consistency, in political affairs. The details of this transaction will not diminish the reputation of the Calabrians, for being one of the most fanatical and ferocious people in Europe. C.

To the Editor.

Account of the landing and arrest of Joachim Murat with his suite, at Pirzo in Calabria.

On the 8th October, 1815, there appeared on this coast a coasting vessel and a row-boat, under French colours, about a gun-shot from the usual landing place for boats. They were no sooner seen on shore, than there disembarked about thirty persons, who immediately began shouting, "*Long live King Joachim, long live King Murat.*" The news of these shouts on the beach, having shortly reached the town, the people were astonished, and would not believe it. However, Murat quickly arrived at the Maria gate, near the entrance of a large square in the town, with his followers. Murat himself then cried out, "*Long live King Joachim, long live King Murat,*" and all his suite joined him in those exclamations. He then advanced to a place where a guard of Legionaries (Militia) was mounted, and on his approach addressed them thus, "My brave Legionaries;" while his suite recommenced their shouts of *Long live King Joachim*, but not one of the town repeated the same. They remained surprised and frightened, not knowing what to make of this their unexpected appearance. Murat not finding himself seconded, turned to Gen. Franceschi and said, "There are none but Brigands here, let us proceed to Monteleone," and speaking to the Legionaries

said, "Follow me," but they did not obey him. He immediately pushed on for Monteleone. In the mean while, the people terrified, began to retire to their houses, and shut up their shops. But about a quarter of an hour after, they resolved to follow and arrest him, and shortly coming up with him and his suite, began and kept up a continual fire of musketry. Murat and suite then finding they could not get to Monteleone, determined to return to the beach where they had disembarked, but in such confusion and consternation, they nearly broke their necks in their retreat. They were closely followed by the people, constantly firing upon them. Murat was the first to reach the place of his landing, but for his misfortune, he neither found the vessel or the boat, they having hauled off on hearing the first firing. He however found a small boat, got in, and endeavoured to put off amidst the shots which were poured on him, but did not succeed. Seeing, at length, one of his Captains fall dead, he lost courage, and several of the populace having got possession of the boat, they dragged him on shore, abusing him as one of the most infamous malefactors. In this manner they arrested him and his suite, who were almost all wounded, either from the muskets or by the sabre. Murat was unhurt; not that he did not defend himself with great bravery, pistol in hand. It would have excited compassion in any feeling person, to see him and his companions covered with blood, suffering from the abuse and cruelty of the enraged populace. They maltreated Murat particularly, by spitting, and giving him blows in the face, slaps on the cheeks, stripping off his epaulettes and cross, tearing his uniform, striking him in the face with his hat, from which they took fifteen diamonds of great value. One fellow had the impudence to slap him with one of his own shoes; another actually tore away his mustaches, and wrapt them in some paper as a trophy. All the others were treated nearly in the same manner, except one officer who was not wounded. The pen cannot express the treatment they met with on their way to the prison. The women crying out against Murat, "*Vengeance, kill him, murder him.*" To relate the whole would fill a volume. At length they were brought to the gaol, wounded and exhausted. The people would have them confined in a small and offensive room, but Murat made some resistance, and refused to go in; at last he was obliged to yield to force,

and was, with the others, shut up in a dungeon, where they confine the worst of delinquents and banditti, very much bruised, and almost naked. Any one present must have pitied them, particularly Murat. The agent of the Duke del Infantado (a Spanish nobleman) sent them shirts, coats and breeches, with every thing necessary to clothe themselves, because their clothes had been torn from their backs, and rent to pieces by the fury of the populace. Murat finding himself thus secured, was very dispirited, and asked if there was either an Austrian or English Vice-Consul here? A person came immediately to my house, saying Murat wanted me, and having hesitated to go, he sent a second time. In fine, I went, and presenting myself at the bar of the cell, Murat said to me, "You are the English Vice-Consul," I answered yes, and added, "You, Signor, are Gen. Murat?" he replied, saying, "Signor Consul, do you know me?" I answered no. To this, Murat spoke to me in the following words: "I am King Joachim, and have claims on the kingdom of Naples." He likewise said, "I have a passport from the Allied Powers, to go to Trieste to join my family." He desired the officer to let me see it, but I did not, as the officer refused. He then told me his passport was sent from Paris, signed by Prince Metternich and Lord Stuart, the English minister at Paris, under the name of the Count de Laparal. He added, that he should now put himself under my protection, with these words: "If I had had a dagger, when I was arrested, I would have destroyed myself." I asked the object of his landing here, he answered, that it was only to procure a larger vessel to proceed to Trieste. I then inquired from whence he came, he replied, from Corsica, but lastly from Ajaccio, and that he left that place on the 28th September. I said, "How could you be in Corsica, when there are French troops there?" He answered, it is true, but the King of France had never taken part against me, nor had ever issued orders to arrest my person. Therefore, assist me, as I am not dead yet. He then exclaimed, "I, who have subjugated Europe, to be now shut up in this dungeon!" I answered, "You have done every thing to ruin yourself." "How?" Because you ran about crying, *long live King Joachim, long live Murat.* He replied, "it was not me, but some of my people." One of them, who was near the bar, spoke

the following words to his face : "Was it not thou who shouted long live King Joachim, and now thou deniest it?" He then desired me to procure him a little water, which was immediately brought him, when a peasant, who was on guard, cried out, "Will you likewise have, like the Holy God, a little poison and vinegar?" These circumstances seem almost incredible, but they are nevertheless true. They say Rona Romana remained on board the vessel. Murat's company was comprised of two Generals, two Commissaries of War, and several officers, with nineteen or twenty soldiers. There were found on them several proclamations, seducing the people, and other papers which confirmed that his intention in coming here was to promote a revolution; and if Murat had reached Monteleone at this moment, half the population of the two provinces would have gone over to him. Gen. Nunziante is since arrived here, and has provided Murat and his associates with every thing necessary. Murat he also treats well. This is a succinct and true account of what has happened, and on which you may depend, having been myself an ocular witness to the whole.

PIRZO, OCTOBER 15, 1815.

The following is a brief account of the unfortunate end of Joachim Murat.

On Thursday last (the 12th instant) arrived an Estafette from Naples, and another at 9 o'clock, directed to Marshal Nunziante, with orders to assemble a Military Commission to try Murat. They immediately began to call the witnesses to depose what Murat had said on his arrival in this place. In the mean time the commission was formed, consisting of Marshal Nunziante, a Lieutenant-Colonel and Captain, with the Procurator General of Monteleone. The suite of Murat was then placed in close confinement, and he was left in a room with a guard upon him. An hour before the reading of the sentence, he knew the commission was sitting, and through me, desired to speak with General Nunziante, but he was informed he was not then present. Murat impatient, wrote a note to the said General, but it was not received, it being intimated to him, that no letters could be admitted. At length, the process finished, not

more than twelve hours having elapsed, as the Estafettes arrived in the evening of the 12th, and it was terminated at 9 o'clock in the morning of the 13th. By the decision of the Procurator General, he was condemned to die, which sentence was agreed to by the votes of the whole commission. It was then read to him by one of those who composed the said commission, on which he exclaimed, "How! does Ferdinand IVth wish my death? What have I done? It displeases me much to find the violence with which the Court of Naples has treated this affair." A confessor then entered the apartment, and exhorted him to confess; but Murat answered him, "My sins are so heavy, that none but God himself can pardon them." At least, said the confessor, make some confession; he seemed much affected.—The confessor again pressed it, in order to do away what might be said. He then took a pen, and wrote in the last moments of his life, "I have lived a christian, and die a true christian." He desired a pair of scissors, to cut off some hair to be sent to his wife, but it was not permitted. The time for putting the sentence into execution being elapsed, (orders from Naples not to exceed a quarter of an hour after it was passed) he was told to move towards the place destined for his execution, in the same prison, and coming out of the room, a Neapolitan Officer gave him a handkerchief to blind himself, but he refused it. Arrived at the destined spot, with an intrepid countenance, turning immediately his face to the soldiers, and placing his hand upon his breast, he gave the word "Fire." They fired twelve shots at his breast, which killed him instantaneously, and three in the head after he fell. His body was placed in a rough wooden box and carried to the Church, without a bier or any religious ceremony, on the shoulders of six soldiers, accompanied by fifteen or twenty others, and buried in a pit where they throw the most despicable felons. The trial of this unfortunate man has been similar to that of the most infamous brigands. This is a correct account of the miserable end of Joachim Murat.

The populace, not sufficiently satiated, dug up Murat's body, and attempted to burn it; upon the interference of a respectable magistrate, they shot him, and consumed their bodies together. Ferdinand has pardoned all Murat's suite.—This act does him honour.

[A Society has been established in Massachusetts, by some christian philanthropists, to discourage war. Whatever opinion may be entertained of the utility of this Institution, no doubt can exist about the purity of the motives of the respectable individuals who compose it. One of the strongest arguments for war in Europe, a crowded population, cannot be found in this country for a long period of time. The following letters were received by the founder of this Society, in answer to an application to the writers for their support of its views. Any letters coming from such eminent men as Mr. Adams and Mr. Jefferson, must be interesting ; but these are highly characteristick. We copy them from the 4th number of "the Friend of Peace," a work published under the auspices of this Society.]

Mr. Jefferson's Answer.

MONTICELLO, JAN. 29, 1816.

SIR,

Your letter, bearing date October 18, 1815, came only to hand the day before yesterday, which is mentioned to explain the date of mine. I have to thank you for the pamphlets accompanying it, to wit, the Solemn Review, the Friend of Peace or Special Interview, and the Friend of Peace, No. 2. The first of these I had received through another channel some months ago. I have not read the two last steadily through, because where one assents to propositions as soon as announced, it is loss of time to read the arguments in support of them. These numbers discuss the first branch of the causes of war, that is to say, wars undertaken for the *point of honour*, which you aptly analogize with the act of duelling between individuals, and reason with justice from the one to the other. Undoubtedly this class of wars is, in the general, what you state them to be, "needless, unjust and inhuman, as well as antichristian."

The second branch of this subject, to wit, wars undertaken on account of *wrong done*, and which may be likened to the act of robbery in private life, I presume will be treated of in your future numbers. I observe this class mentioned in the Solemn Review, p. 10, and the question asked, "Is it common for a nation to obtain a *redress* of wrongs by war?" The answer to this question you will of

course draw from history ; in the mean time, reason will answer it on grounds of probability, that where the wrong has been done by a weaker nation, the stronger one has generally been able to enforce redress ; but where by a stronger nation, redress by war has been neither obtained nor expected by the weaker ; on the contrary, the loss has been increased by the expenses of the war, in blood and treasure : yet it may have obtained another object, equally securing itself from future wrong. It may have retaliated on the aggressor, losses of blood and treasure, far beyond the value to him, of the wrong he had committed, and thus have made the advantage of that too dear a purchase to leave him in a disposition to renew the wrong in future ; in this way, the loss by the war may have secured the weaker nation from loss by future wrong. The case you state of two boxers, both of whom get a "terrible bruising," is opposite to this ; he, of the two who committed the aggression on the other, although victor in the scuffle, yet probably finds his aggression not worth the bruising it has cost him. To explain this by numbers, it is alleged, that Great-Britain took from us, before the late war, near 1000 vessels, and that during the war, we took from her 1400 ; that before the war, she seized, and made slaves of 6000 of our citizens, and that in the war we killed more than 6000 of her subjects, and caused her to expend such a sum as amounted to 4 or 5000 guineas a head for every slave she made. She might have purchased the vessels she took, for less than the value of those she lost, and have used the 6000 of her men killed, for the purpose to which she applied ours, have saved the 4 or 5000 guineas a head, and obtained a character of justice, which is valuable to a nation as to an individual. These considerations, therefore, leave her without inducement to plunder property, and take men in future on such dear terms. I neither affirm nor deny the truth of these allegations, nor is their truth material to the question ; they are possible, and therefore present a case which will claim your consideration, in a discussion of the general question ; Whether any degree of injury can render a recourse to war expedient ? Still less do I suppose, to draw to myself any part in this discussion. Age, and its effects both on body and mind, has weaned my attentions from publick subjects, and left me unequal to the labours of correspondence, beyond the limits of my personal concerns. I retire therefore from the question, with a sincere wish, that your writings may

have effect in lessening this greatest of human evils, and that you may retain life and health, to enjoy the contemplation of this happy spectacle ; and pray you to be assured of my great respect.

TH : JEFFERSON.

Mr. Adams' Answer.

QUINCY, FEBRUARY 6, 1816.

DEAR SIR,

I have received your kind letter of the 23d of January, and I thank you for the pamphlets enclosed with it.

It is very true, as my excellent friend, Mr. Norton, has informed you, that I have read many of your publications with pleasure.

I have also read, almost all the days of my life, the solemn reasonings and pathetick declamations of Erasmus, of Fenelon, of St. Pierre, and many others against war, and in favour of peace. My understanding and my heart, accorded with them, at first blush. But, alas ! a longer and more extensive experience has convinced me, that wars are as necessary and as inevitable, in our system, as Hurricanes, Earthquakes and Volcanoes.

Our beloved country, sir, is surrounded by enemies, of the most dangerous, because the most powerful and most unprincipled character. Collisions of national interest, of commercial and manufacturing rivalries, are multiplying around us. Instead of discouraging a martial spirit, in my opinion, it ought to be excited. We have not enough of it to defend us by sea or land.

Universal and perpetual peace appears to me, no more nor less than everlasting passive obedience, and non-résistance. The human flock would soon be fleeced and butchered by one or a few.

I cannot therefore, sir, be a subscriber or a member of your society.

I do, sir, most humbly supplicate the theologians, the philosophers, and the politicians, to let me die in peace. I seek only repose.

With the most cordial esteem, however,

I am, sir, your friend and servant,

JOHN ADAMS.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Spots on the Sun.

There is no occasion for surprise, and still less for alarm, on account of the spots, which have lately appeared on the sun. Similar ones have often been observed before. It is true, that they are not often large enough to be perceived by the naked eye. But they may almost always be seen by the half of a telescope, and it is much more uncommon to find the sun without them, than with them. The moon also, has spots; the bodies of the planets are not of a uniform brightness. Many of the fixed stars are subject to an alternate increase and diminution of light. Our own sky is sometimes bright and sometimes obscured by clouds. The whole face of nature is variable, every thing is mutable and fluctuating. Nothing is constant but change. The wonder is, that the sun should pour forth so uniform and steady a light, not that it should sometimes be partially interrupted.

The sun's spots have now been observed and speculated upon, for more than two hundred years. There is nothing like regularity in their form and appearance. They are as various in magnitude, and as diversified in figure, as the clouds of our atmosphere, and some of them as fleeting. Sometimes, twenty, thirty, and even fifty may be seen at once, sometimes, none are to be found for a number of years. They have been known to occupy an extent, equal to a fifth of the sun's diameter in length, and a twentieth in breadth.

Some spots are darker, and others brighter than the rest of the disk. They are often found to succeed each other alternately in the same place. The dark spot consists generally, of two parts, a centre and a border, or nucleus and umbra as they are called. The centre is of a darker shade than the border, and the border is darkest towards its outer edge, and is distinguished from the deeper coloured nucleus, by a well defined and very marked difference of light. But, a circumstance of the utmost importance, as indicating the nature of these spots, is, that they are all in motion, and all move with the same rapidity, and in the same direction, and if they continue long

enough, they all return in nearly the same time. They are about fourteen days in passing over the sun, from east to west apparently, and in the same time, reappear again in the east. Few remain long enough to make an entire revolution. One has been observed during nearly three complete periods. It appears also, that these spots, at particular seasons of the year, move over the sun in straight lines, at all other times, in lines more or less curved, and the paths described by different spots, observed at the same time, are always parallel to each other, and always have their curvature and position determined by the season.

These few facts, will enable us to judge of the value of most of the hypotheses, that have been proposed respecting the nature of the phenomena in question.

If our lakes, Superiour, Ontario, Erie, &c. were visible to a spectator at the sun, they would exhibit an appearance very similar to that which the solar spots do to us. They would not appear to pass over the centre of the earth's disk. They would all move across in the same time. They would describe straight lines, when our days and nights are equal, about the middle of March and middle of September. At all other times, their paths would be curved, and most so, at the time of our longest and shortest days. Besides they would appear broadest when near the middle point of their passage, and at their entering and going off, they would be contracted in breadth, their length in the direction parallel to the sun's limb being undiminished.

We conclude, therefore, from the facts that have been stated, that the sun's spots adhere to his surface, and that their motion is produced by the motion of the sun upon an axis not quite perpendicular to the ecliptick. They cannot be Mercury or Venus, for these planets are only a few hours in passing over the sun, and they always appear round and move in apparently straight lines. They cannot consist of a collection of small planets nearer the sun, for similar reasons. Their motion is too slow, and they ought not to be so long between us and the sun, as they are in describing the rest of their orbits. If half of the orbit described, is comprehended within the sun's breadth, it is a sufficient proof that it coincides with his surface. Their dilating and contracting also, according as they are near the centre or border, seem to be a natural

consequence of such a coincidence. This circumstance, moreover, seems not very favourable to the supposition, that these appearances proceed from elevated objects, as mountains or rocks, rising above the luminous matter of the sun. We should expect, were this the case, that they would exhibit a greater breadth and more of a triangular form, when viewed in a direction perpendicular to their basis, and that we should have the same spot return, after a certain interval of time, presenting the same appearance, and occupying the same place. But, nothing of this kind is to be found in the history of these appearances.

There was a remarkable spot in 1769, which appeared to be depressed below the surface of the sun. As it approached the limb, the umbra, or shadowy margin, nearest the centre of the sun disappeared first. On its return to the other limb, the other margin, being nearest the centre, was invisible. It was hid apparently by the intervening portion of the sun's body. As the spot advanced upon the disk, it came into view. Dr. Herschell has observed many appearances of this kind, and is fully persuaded, that these dark specks are below the surface of the sun. He has given views and observations which tend very much to confirm this opinion. He has undertaken to measure the sides of the depression, and to determine its depth. He thinks that the phenomena of the spots arise, not from excavations in the body of the sun, but, from openings in his atmosphere, that the solid substance of the sun is opaque, like the planets, and that like the planets, it is surrounded by an atmosphere, that this atmosphere is transparent to the height of about two thousand miles, and gives support at this elevation to a stratum of dark clouds, on which, as the outer substance of the sun, rests the flood of luminous matter, which presents itself to the surrounding planets. This light is supposed to be produced by the combustion of gases, which are generated below, and which in their ascent drive away the clouds and billows of flame, that float upon them, and thus give us a glimpse both of the opaque surface of the sun and of the cloudy stratum above it, and that these form the nucleus and umbra of a spot; our earth probably presents similar appearances to the inhabitants of the moon. Where it is covered with clouds, it will exhibit a uniform brightness,

where there are breaks and interruptions, the naked body of the earth will be seen, of a darker shade on account of these clouds, which intercept much of the light. The sides of the opening also would present themselves alternately, as the earth revolved on its axis, by which means their depth might be ascertained, as Dr. Herschell ascertained the depth of the openings in the solar clouds.

The sun's spots then, according to this hypothesis, are chasms in his atmosphere, occasioned by ascending currents of gaseous fuel, and they are succeeded by faculæ, as they are called, or bright spots on account of this additional supply of combustible matter, which, it may be supposed, is most completely on fire soon after the opening has closed. But how is the sun ordinarily furnished when there are no spots? The gas may be more diffused, and by ascending in smaller quantities, may produce no sensible disturbance of the luminous fluid. Besides, there are probably openings, that are too small to be seen, and the sun may never be free from them. It is only when their absolute magnitude is very great, that they become an object of any attention.

Dr. Herschell has observed, that the luminous matter of the sun, when viewed with his best telescopes, is far from preserving always the same aspect. It is sometimes, even and tranquil, and sometimes it is thrown up into ridges and appears to be agitated, like the sea in a storm. The changes, when in this state, are often very rapid, small openings are formed and closed in a few minutes, and clouds are seen passing with a rapidity, that considerably alters their situation in the course of an hour. These fluctuations are *more particularly observed* during the time of large and frequent spots. Hence Dr. Herschell infers, that there is a variable emission of light and heat, intimately connected with the appearance and disappearance of spots, and that seasons of uncommon heat and cold, of fertility and barrenness, so far as they depend upon the supply of heat, are to be traced not so much to accidental causes near at hand, as to the inconstancy of the fountain. We are like plants in a green house that are healthy and vigorous, or chilled with the frost, according as the flues are well or ill attended to. We depend for the very means of subsistence, as well as for all the comforts of climate, upon operations, that are going on ninety millions of miles off, upon the

more or less rapid compositions and decompositions, that are taking place in this great laboratory of nature.

There was nothing remarkable in the spot which lately appeared, but its magnitude. Its form, appearance and motion, were just as they should be, and just like a thousand others that have appeared before, in strict conformity to analogy, as well as to the constitution of the sun. But because it happened to be larger than usual, every body begins to wonder at it and to guess about it, as a thing that never occurred before. Besides the large spot, which consisted of several distinct nuclei and umbræ, there was a number of small spots to be seen at the same time, by the help of a telescope. These have passed off and new ones have come on. The return of the large spot has not been recognized. The alterations that it underwent, while visible, render it very doubtful whether it retained its identity long enough to reappear.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Lee's Observations on Light.

A paper was read before the Royal Society of London in June, 1815, on the dispersive power of the atmosphere and its effects on astronomical observations. It was presented by Stephen Lee, Clerk and Librarian to the Royal Society. It contains some very interesting remarks and observations upon a phenomenon, which has been almost entirely overlooked, and which appears to have an important influence upon the apparent places of the heavenly bodies. Every one knows, that when a beam of light passes obliquely from one medium to another, the different rays are refracted unequally, some are deflected more, and others less, from a rectilineal direction. The several rays, constituting the different colours, are thus separated from each other, the red being least refracted, and the violet most. But no allowance has been made for this difference of refrangibility, notwithstanding the difference of colour among the heavenly bodies, and the differently coloured glasses that are used in looking at the sun and moon. When the sun's altitude for instance, is taken with a sextant, a glass, that is tinged with some colour, is used to protect the eye. But different

colours will give different altitudes. The sun's image is not perfectly round, when his rays fall obliquely upon the atmosphere. It consists of several circles, rising one a little above the other, the violet being highest, and the red lowest, and coinciding throughout, except a small fine crescent above and below. The correction for refraction then, ought to be, according to the image that is selected, and in reducing observations of the stars and planets, regard should be had to the particular colour under which they appear.

"The different refrangibility of the differently coloured rays," says Mr. Lee, "is very visible in stars near the horizon. If viewed on a fine night with a power of 200, they appear expanded into a prismatic spectrum, Sirius, when within a few degrees of the horizon, presents a most beautiful object.

"Having remarked the very oblong figure which the spectrum assumes when near the horizon, and found from repeated observations of different stars, that the separation of light begins to be visible as high as forty or fifty degrees of altitude, I was led to believe, that the dispersive power of the atmosphere must be sufficient in many cases to produce considerable effect on astronomical observations; and consequently to suppose, that it would be desirable to ascertain if possible the exact degree of separation of the several rays."

After describing the manner in which he conducted his observations, and the kind of apparatus which he used for determining the amount of the dispersion, he says, "From a great number of observations on Mars, Venus and the fixed stars, taken in all these different ways, I found the deviation of the extreme rays of light to be between the 1-60 and 1-70 part of the total refraction."

Mr. Lee supposes, that the disagreement, which is found to exist between the latitude of a place deduced from observations of circumpolar stars, and that, from observations of the sun, may be traced to the use of dark glasses; and that other differences have arisen from the introduction of coloured glasses, which give a deep red image, in the place of smoked glasses, which he supposes, were first used in observatories, and which give a pale orange coloured image.

"The introduction of achromatick object glasses," he continues, "produced an error of a different kind, and one which

in certain cases, tends to correct the other. In the single object glass telescope, the differently coloured images are formed at different focal distances, which in a manner compels the observer to adjust his instrument to the most intense light, that is to say, to the orange coloured image; by this means, the fainter colours, which occupy the greatest space of the spectrum, are dissipated and lost among the more powerful rays. In good achromatick telescopes the case is very different, for all the rays being collected by them into one point, every colour is seen in its proper place, so that the observer, in bisecting the spectrum, takes the altitude of the mean, or the upper extremity of the green image." We will add two more paragraphs.

"It may not be amiss," says the writer, "to observe here, that the observations of Mr. Lalande at Paris show a greater disagreement, than those at Greenwich, and the observations of Mr. Piazzini at Palermo, a still greater than those of Mr. Lalande. This, I apprehend, must arise partly from the lesser elevation of the pole in those places, and partly from the fainter colours in the stellar spectra, being more distinctly visible in the clear atmospheres of France and Italy, than in England."

"It should seem then, that in order to get a perfect knowledge of astronomical refraction, we ought to employ at least three different methods of investigation. First, by observations of the fixed stars during the night, when all the prismatic colours are visible. Secondly, by observations of stars during the day, when none, but the orange coloured rays, are to be seen. And thirdly, by observations of the sun with differently coloured glasses. By these means we might hope to obtain such an accurate knowledge of atmospherick refraction, as would enable us to form tables adapted to every possible circumstance."

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Sandwich Islands.

American vessels, in their voyages to and from the North-West coast of this continent, frequently stop at the Sandwich Islands, for refreshments and repairs, and the restoration of health to their crews, generally impaired by the fatigue incident

to the boisterous passage round Cape Horn, and the watchfulness and anxiety necessary in guarding against the Indians, inhabiting the North-West coast of America. Of these islands, so interesting to navigators, and from their situation and productions, so important to the scientifick and commercial world, a short account may be worthy of some attention. They are situated in the North Pacifick Ocean, about two thousand seven hundred miles from the nearest part of the western coast of America, and about five thousand three hundred miles from the nearest part of the eastern coast of Asia. They lie, nearly in a south-eastern and north-western direction, and extend from $18^{\circ} 54'$ to $22^{\circ} 15'$ of north latitude; and from $150^{\circ} 54'$ to $160^{\circ} 24'$ longitude west from Greenwich. They are eleven in number.

Owhyhee, much the largest, is the nearest to the American shore, and going from the south-east to the north-west we have Mowee, the next largest, Tahoorah and Morokinne, the latter the smallest of the group, Ranai, Morotoi, Warhoo, Attoi, the two last nearly equal in size to Mowee. Oneehow and Oreehow, and lastly, Tahoorah, nearest the Asiatick coast, and the smallest excepting Morokinne. They are all inhabited, excepting Morokinne, Tahoorah and Oreehow. Five of them were discovered by the celebrated Cook, in January, 1778; and on his return from Analaska, on the 26th of November, 1778, he discovered Mowee, and on the 30th of the same month Owhyhee, where afterwards, he fell a sacrifice to the resentment of the natives, excited by a series of injuries, and insults on the part of the English, almost universally considered to have been inflicted without justifiable cause. It is true, that Captain Cook, individually, discountenanced all acts of violence, and his memory in this particular, has received no tarnish from the occurrences which led to the destruction of his valuable life. It happened in this, as in many other cases, that secondary officers, removed from the eyes of their commanders, were guilty of much abuse of their temporary authority. The Islanders are represented to have shewn, on the second, as well as on the first visit of Cook, abundant confidence, good nature, and cheerfulness, and were remarked for the possession of great "natural politeness" and delicacy of demeanour. These qualities were apparent in their whole intercourse, even in the minutest circumstances. They did not

go to any part of the ships without permission, and refrained from spitting on the decks. They are, however, accused of theft, and according to our notions of the acts necessary to constitute this offence, the accusation is well founded. To this furtive disposition, the quarrels between them and the English are, by the latter, attributed. It may, nevertheless, be doubted whether the appropriation of pieces of iron, &c. to their own use, deserves this appellation, certainly it cannot furnish their visitors with a justification for punishing it with blood. It is admitted by the candid and philosophical of those who accompanied Cook, that the Indians at first took things openly and with unconcern, as if they thought they had a right to them, and were surprised and offended when they were flogged. But, if these actions had, unequivocally been furtive, it cannot be admitted to have been necessary, to have sacrificed the lives of the natives. Iron to them was more valuable than gold to us; and one would think, that white men, very slightly prone to reflection, would have considered how very few of their own colour would resist the temptation, the circumstances, in all respects being reversed. We are forcibly struck with the readiness with which the same conduct was considered heinously criminal in the Indians, and quite venial in the English. After the severe lessons, so liberally given the children of nature, to teach them the difference between mine and thine—it is to be supposed they learned something of the distinction. Of course, when their visitors afterwards went on shore for grass and water, the natives resisted, and insisted on payment. But Cook's officers took the herbage and water by force, and were ready to kill the natives for opposing them, thus shewing a willingness to add murder to theft, if their own construction of the actions of the Indians was right. In this, as in most other instances of fatal collision between civilized and uncivilized men, it appears the former has been in the wrong. The blame may, almost without an exception, be laid to those, whose might induces them to trample on right.

We do not recollect a civilized nation, whose intercourse with uncivilized men has not been marked with cruelty. If there be an exception to this remark, it is in favour of that nation, the most loudly accused of great laxity in morals and religion. It is believed the French are more often favourites,

more easily gain and longer keep the confidence of the men of the woods, than any other nation. Perhaps these exertions of their justice and benevolence left them, under their late blood-stained chief, so little to spare for their civilized brethren.

It was thought by Cook, and those who accompanied him in his last expedition, that they were the first Europeans who visited the Sandwich Islands, and the honour of the discovery has been conferred on him. That they were the first visitors, was inferred from the conduct and inquiries of the natives, whom they were enabled, in a good degree, to understand from their language being very similar to that of the Otaheitan. The busy and active curiosity and astonishment, exhibited and expressed by this artless and comparatively uncivilized race, with respect to the ships and their crews, and almost every thing connected with them, were such as to make it evident, that the then generation had never before seen similar objects. There were, however, two circumstances remarked by the supposed discoverers, which at the time, caused a slight degree of doubt of their being the first visitors. These were the knowledge of iron, and the dress of some of the chiefs. It was thought, that at most, they had only known iron in small quantities, and at some distant period. The dress referred to, was altogether unlike that of the inhabitants of any other Island in the South Seas, closely resembling the Spanish cloak and helmet, in form and manner of wearing. But these facts were reconciled with the idea of the Islands never having been visited by civilized men. Their slight knowledge of iron and its use was imputed to some pieces of wreck casually thrown on their shores, and the resemblance in their dress to the Spaniards was considered to have been accidental. It is true, these circumstances, of themselves, would raise a very slight presumption of the Islands having been discovered before, but connected with other facts, the whole may amount to proof. The evidence that Cook was not the discoverer is thought now to be satisfactory, and will be exhibited after giving a description of the dress. It is composed of a short cloak and cap. The ground of the cloak is net work, on which the most beautiful feathers of red, black, yellow, and other colours are so closely and nicely fixed, that the surface resembles the richest

velvet, and is valued more than any other articles in their possession excepting iron. The cap is in the form of a helmet setting very close on the head, having notches to admit the ears, and a crest rising five or six inches. It is composed of a frame of twigs covered with net work, on which are fixed feathers in the same manner and with the same effect as on the cloaks, excepting the caps are generally, of a uniform colour. The cloaks are of similar shape and size to those used by the Spanish men, and are tied and worn in the same manner. The caps resemble the Spanish helmets.

The evidence which, in connexion with these facts, demonstrate that Cook, in one sense, was not the discoverer of the Sandwich Islands, will now be offered. In doing this, we feel the less repugnance, for after all, it will appear, that that great and valuable man, so untimely and unnecessarily lost to science and the world, is fully entitled to the glory which irradiates his memory. He knew not the facts relative to a discovery for a long time lost, and of which it appears the natives themselves had no tradition. In the lapse of two and a half centuries it was effaced from their recollection.

The evidence referred to, is contained in the second volume of the voyages of La Perouse, pages 116, 117. "It is," says the writer in a note, "certain that these Islands were discovered for the first time by Gaetan, [a Spanish navigator] in 1542. According to Gaetan's own account, he sailed from the port of the Nativity, on the west coast of Mexico, in the twentieth degree of north latitude, and steered to the west, and after having proceeded nine hundred leagues on a western course (consequently changing his latitude but little) he came to a group of Islands, inhabited by savages nearly naked. These Islands were bordered with coral rocks, and abounded with cocoa nuts and many other fruits, but had neither gold nor silver. To the first he saw, he gave the name of Kings Island; and to another, which he found twenty leagues more to the west, he gave the name of Garden Island." It is difficult, after this relation, for a geographer, not to place the discoveries of Gaetan, precisely where Cook found the Sandwich Islands. But the compiler of Gaetan's voyage placed the group as lying

between the 9th and the 11th degrees of latitude, instead of the 19th and 21st degrees. Whether the omission of ten degrees in each instance, was accidental, or purposely done by the Court of Spain, which, in that age, had an interest in concealing the position of the Islands in that ocean, is uncertain. La Perouse, or Mureau his editor, says "he has no doubt it was accidental, and an error of figures." He adds, "had there been an intention of concealment, it would have been useless to have published, that Gaetan sailed from a point on the 20th degree of latitude, and continued a western course a given distance, and came to a group of islands, and then, with an intention of concealing the knowledge of these Islands to have placed them in a false position on the chart or in the books. If concealment had been intended, they could more effectually, and as easily have falsified the course."

La Perouse, with a view to remove all doubts on the subject, cruised several days in the latitudes of 9 and 11, and could discover no land, nor signs of land. In answer to an anticipated objection, that the island seen by Gaetan, may have since disappeared, it is said, had a group of Islands existed in latitudes 9 and 11, unless they disappeared very soon after Gaetan saw them, they must have been frequently seen, for those parallels of latitude, are in the common and ordinary route of the Galleons from Acapulco to Manilla. After these proofs, and the persevering and unavailing search of La Perouse, to find land in the latitudes 9 and 11, this will no longer be a subject of discussion with geographers. We must be satisfied, that the Isles seen by Gaetan, and the Sandwich Islands, are the same.

La Perouse says that those who knew his character, will not suspect him of having made these researches from envy to the character of Captain Cook, or to lessen his fame; that he has the highest veneration and respect for the character of that great man. He views him as among the first of navigators; as he who determined the situation of these Islands with precision, explored their coasts, and made known the manners, the usages and the religion of their inhabitants, and paid with his blood, for the first knowledge we had of these people. He was, most truly, the Christopher Columbus of the coast of Anaslaska, and of nearly all the Islands of the South Sea.

The Islands to which our attention has been drawn, were called Sandwich, in honour of the Earl of Sandwich, the liberal and enlightened patron of Cook, then at the head of the British board of admiralty. The only animals then domesticated by the natives were dogs, hogs, and fowls. They now have, cows, horses and goats, put there by the Americans and English. They possessed considerable knowledge of agriculture, the land was divided into fields and bounded in some instances by walls of stone; and in other different parts of a field having the same productions under cultivation, were designated for the proprietors by sticks set in the ground, bearing little flags.

The natives shew much ingenuity in the fabrication and ornamenting of cloths, which they make from a tree called pappalla; the same name they give to paper. Their war instruments, domestic utensils, fish hooks and lines are made with great neatness, and they evince considerable proficiency in the sculpture of their images, and fertility of invention in the almost infinite variety of figures painted on their cloths and other articles. They cultivate the sugar cane, sweet potatoes, tarrow, melons, &c. and the cloth tree or bush, all of which are indigenous, and a variety of esculent vegetables, the seeds of which have been given them. The homely appearance of the walls of their fields is concealed by planting the sugar cane against them. They are fond of manly sports and exercises, and have competitions in wrestling, boxing, running, swimming, throwing the spear, playing at quoits, and have games of chance and skill, at which they bet desperately. Their greatest game of skill considerably resembles our game of chequers. The board is divided into a greater number of squares, they use black and white pebbles, and move from square to square. The game of chance is played by hiding a stone in a heap of sand or under a piece of cloth. A number of heaps being previously made alike, or a number of pieces of cloth, similar in form and appearance being laid on the ground. The leader of the game, having a polished stone, carefully closed in his hand, puts his hand under each heap or piece of cloth. The other standing by, and watching his motions, and the movements of the muscles of his arm with eagle eyes. In this consists the dexterity of the game. The leader exerts himself to make such motions of the muscles

of the arm, as would naturally be made, if he opened his hand, and when he really leaves the stone, his greatest skill is exerted to act as if he kept his hand closed. The followers mark the place, where each one for himself supposes the stone to have been left. Those who designate rightly, win, those who mistake, loose. The leader bets against the whole, and the chances are calculated upon the supposed skill of the leader, and the number of heaps or pieces of cloth combined, and the odds are made accordingly.

The ensuing observations will, generally, be confined to Owyhee, but will, in a good measure apply to the other islands. The climate is equal to the most favoured spot on the globe. The longevity of the natives is not unfrequently so great, as to induce the remark, that they sometimes live until they become so dry and light, as to be blown away by the wind. The heat is moderated by the trade wind constantly from the north-east, at right angles with the general position of the group. The thermometer is seldom higher than 80 or lower than 60. All the tropical fruits, and most of the productions of the temperate zone are, or may be produced in profusion. This Island is remarkable for a mountain of about 18000 feet elevation called *Mona-Rowa*, its top is almost always covered with snow. Formerly, it must have been a great volcano. Smoke frequently issues from it. In every district of the Island, large masses of slag, pieces of rock which evidently have been exposed to the action of fire, pumice stone, and courses of lava are visible. This mountain, although not so high as Mount Saint Elias, on the North-West coast of America, nor so elevated by 4500 feet at Chimborazo in South America, has been seen at a greater distance than either of them, from the sea. It has been clearly discerned 53 leagues.

We shall conclude, by a slight notice of *Taammamaah*, the chief, who by usurpation and conquest, has obtained and maintains a despotick sway over a large proportion of the entire group.

When Cook, in January, 1778, discovered five of these islands, and had been cruising among them several days, it was remarked, that notwithstanding great numbers of the natives came to the ships, they had not observed any one bearing tokens of high authority. At length, a chief appeared, who is

described as being a young man, clothed from head to foot, and was called Tamahano. He paid no regard to the small canoes in his way, but ran against and over them with his large double canoe, without deviating, in the slightest degree to avoid them. His subjects could not well avoid him, it being a necessary mark of submission, that they should lie still until he passed. He shewed great punctiliousness in exacting the utmost devotion from his attendants ; and when he came on the deck, his attendants formed a circle around him, holding each other by the hand, and would suffer no one to approach him but the captain of the ship. There was a loftiness of demeanour, and attitude of command about him, not observed in any of the great chiefs with whom they were afterwards acquainted. It is quite certain this was Taammamaah, then one of the chiefs of the third grade, now the chief. He is about sixty years of age, a man of great bodily and mental vigour, possessing uncommon penetration and foresight, and readily adopting from the whites every thing, which he thinks will insure the permanency of his power and add to the glory of his reign. Imitating our martial forms and discipline ; regulating the trade and industry of his subjects, he constantly evinces anxiety to be as wise as he thinks we are, and permits many changes in policy and manners, but is careful not to suffer change or innovation in the religion of his country. It is found impossible to give him a correct understanding of our abstract ideas of the divine nature. He believes, in a future state ; and when severely accused for the gross folly of worshipping wooden images, as if they had any power over the destiny of man, he explained and defended the act, by saying, "It is not the wood we worship ; we are not permitted to address ourselves directly to the great good God, (they have a great evil one too) but he condescends to come into the wood and hear our vows and prayers." When it was attempted to give him an idea of the mediation of our blessed Saviour ; and of his suffering, even unto death, to save mankind ; he significantly shook his head, evincing distrust or want of understanding the meaning, and said "his God never had died." The method adopted to impress on his mind the great truths which animate the hopes of Christians, may be considered not to have been judicious. Worship being, in a great degree, founded on a sense of superior power, wisdom and knowledge in the being to which adora-

tion is paid, to the uncultivated mind of a savage, an image of weakness and suffering, and possibly of punishment for fault, would be presented by a representation of the death of Jesus in the form, in which it almost necessarily must be presented to give even a faint outline of the truth.

The obstacle to the sway of Taammamaah over all the Islands, is Tomaree, king of Atooi. To conquer this Island, and then to die, satisfied with his career, has, for years, been the ardent desire of this copper-coloured Alexander. For this has he disciplined and armed his subjects, and built a fleet composed of schooners and sloops, mounting small cannon and swivels, in addition to a large number of war canoes.

Tomaree has not omitted preparation for defence, and the attack having been so long delayed and his forces become so well disciplined and powerful, that the latter now thinks of invading the dominions of the former, and hurling the usurper from his throne. Each has offered Sandal wood and other inducements to the Americans, for assistance in the invasion and conquest of the dominions of the other. We hope none of our countrymen will voluntarily assist in a war of conquest.

During the late war between us and Great-Britain, the Cherub and Raccoon, sloops of war, went to these Islands on a cruize. While there, some occurrences happened, the relation of which, may throw additional light on the character of Taammamaah. The pursuit of the British for American vessels and other property, was eager and unrelenting, and some of our ships, being merchantmen, were captured without resistance. In 1813, two *gentlemen commanding expeditions from Boston, being at Owyhee and Warhooa, discovered that these Islands produced the Sandal wood, which is in request in China for religious and other uses. The superiour value of this wood to that of most others of equal durability and hardness, was unknown to the Islanders. They had been accustomed to use it for the ordinary purposes of common wood. Its use was explained to the King, and a contract made by which he stipulated to furnish labourers from among his subjects, to assist in cutting and preparing the wood for market. The Americans to carry it to China and return him a certain proportion of the

* Captains William H. Davis and Nathan Windship.

proceeds in money. The contract to be in force ten years, and to be exclusive for that time.

A few voyages were made, adding considerably to the royal treasures. One in particular, was performed in a vessel of 200 tons, built by the Indians at Owyhee, under the superintendence of a white man. Each party derived emolument from the arrangement, which continued until the arrival of the British, without interruption, excepting in one instance, when some other Americans influenced by envious cupidity, attempted to persuade the great chief to break his agreement and ungenerously take to themselves the fruits of the labours and discoveries of others, but these attempts were not attended with much success.

The business, on the part of the original contractors, having been conducted with fairness, and opened a new source of revenue to the king, the gentlemen before referred to became great favourites, and the one who first explained to him the uses and value of the wood, obtained much influence. They were saluted and treated with the ceremonies and honours due to those of high rank, and one of them was called the white chief. This was the situation of affairs on the arrival of Captain Tucker, with the sloops of war, who, when he became acquainted with this and other transactions, leading him to suppose there was American property on shore, immediately laid plans and devised measures to obtain its possession. To effect this, it was necessary to destroy the influence of the resident Americans, and prudence required him not to excite the resentment of Taammamaah. He therefore represented the Americans to be mere captains of merchantmen, as traders and pedlars who had imposed themselves on him as men of power, when in fact, they were not even common warriors. That they did not, and were not permitted to wear the dress of white warriors. That the vessels he had taken from them were wrens in the talons of an eagle, and that he had only to speak a word, and the men being his enemies, were either dead or slaves. He added, they have already deceived you, they have not given you half the value of the wood, and they live here and extort attentions from you and your subjects to which they are not entitled. This produced little or no effect. Taammamaah had derived so much information and had been so well pleased with the

demeanour of his old friends, that he resolved to afford them protection. Captain Tucker then had recourse to a species of machiavelism, which probably would have produced its intended effect on a civilized court ignorant of the facts. He represented the Americans, to be rebels; that he and they belonged to the same great Chief, that they had wickedly rebelled, that the father and this part of his children were at war the second time, and he had been sent to search for and punish the wicked rebels wherever he could find them, and seize their property for the use of their common father. This made a deep impression on the mind of Taammamaah, and in his interviews afterwards; he did not suppress the expression of his preference of the loyal British, to the rebellious Americans. He broke his contract. His sympathies were with the loyal. And in justification of the change in his sentiments, he put the case of one of his Islands rebelling against him, and emphatically asked which party a good and great chief ought to join, had he his choice. "Your ships," said he to the Americans, "are canoes, compared with theirs, and you fly from them as the smoke of Mona-Rowa is driven by the wind. A difficulty, however, arose, which prevented the completion of Tucker's designs. He had no money, and the Sandwich king has been made conversant with coin. He was offered bills on England, in payment for hogs and other supplies to the sloops, and for his part of the wood. He shook his head at the *pappalla*, said it was not good, and all exertions to explain to him its value and its connexion with money were wholly unavailing. He could not be brought to consider the sign, to be the thing signified: in this, he differs from the financiers of our middle states.

There was a circumstance in which Captain Tucker discovered less sagacity, than in his ingenious deception in respect to the war. There was at the Island a ship under the Portuguese flag, which he insisted, was used to cover American property, and minutely scrutinized the papers for evidence to confirm his suspicions. Among other papers, he found a bill of lading, referring to three small boxes containing *dolls*. He immediately exclaimed, "What queer fellows you yankees are; you beat the very devil in resources and contrivance; who, excepting a yankee, would have thought to have sent to

Macao for boxes of dolls to amuse these savages?" The composed readiness with which the Americans favoured this mistake, saved these boxes of *dolls* [dollars] from the grasp of Captain Tucker, who otherwise, would not have been compelled to offer paper in payment, which prevented the completion of his designs.

One of the gentlemen before alluded to, first introduced horses into Owyhee, which he brought from California. The natives who had never seen any animal larger than a cow, regarded them with feelings which might have renewed the ancient fables of the Centaurs. The whole population were out to see these strange animals. Many unsuccessful attempts were made by the natives at first, in riding them, which excited all their timidity. The gentleman who made them a present to the king, set the natives to work, to construct a rude carriage, with solid wheels, and harness made with rope. When completed, the three wives of the king were persuaded, after much difficulty, to take an airing, the king and his subjects being witnesses to this new experiment. Unfortunately the horses not being well broke, became restive in going down a small descent, overturned the carriage, and the three royal favourites, whose fears were not allayed by this disaster. The king and the chief priest immediately exclaimed *Taboo, Taboo*. "This is prohibited—the Gods are offended."

I may hereafter send you some other anecdotes of this interesting sovereign and people, with something like a geological account of the Islands.

Character of Spain, and the Spaniards: taken chiefly from the speech of Dr. Antonio Joseph Ruiz de Padron, Deputy to the Cortes, spoken January 18, 1813, and from "Bread and Bulls" by Don Gaspar Jovellanos, 1813.

THAT Spaniards, notwithstanding all the pains taken to keep them ignorant should, nevertheless, discover a gross violation of Christianity in the establishment and support of the Inquisition, is not the least wonder of our wonderful times.

That they should have an opportunity of declaring their sentiments in a publick national council, is, perhaps, more

wonderful still. One thing, however, is evident, that the existence of a national council, and of the Holy Inquisition, are incompatible. While the Inquisition exists—no council; and if ever the council be again called into existence—no Inquisition: a short time may shew, what the event, to last for ages, will be.

Dr. Ruiz undertakes to prove that the Inquisition is contrary to the honour of God, to the well being of men, and to the promotion of piety. He says, the office of Inquisitor-General is not enumerated by St. Paul among church officers; he says too, in the time of Arius it was unknown; and in no time can it be necessary. He says, that he could defend many, or most of the tenets of his church; but he never could defend the Inquisition. When he was in America, he used to meet at the house of Dr. Franklin, with eminent American literati:—

“Young as I then was,” says he, “I was able to convince many of the supremacy which the Bishop of Rome obtains, by divine right, over the whole church—a supremacy of jurisdiction and not merely of honour—but I confess that when, all in a body, they beset me on the establishment of the Inquisition, I had not a word to say.”

“Discussion of this nature,” he tells us also, “took place in the house of George Washington, but he was never able to ascertain to what sect that celebrated General belonged. The philosopher Franklin, however, was suspected to be an Arminian. On the challenge of Franklin, to give a publick proof of his sincerity, he preached in the Catholick Church of Philadelphia against the Inquisition. His sermon was translated into English; it was then preached throughout the provinces of New-York and Maryland; and so satisfied were the auditors that the Inquisition was the work of human policy and despotism, that many of the Anglo-Armenians changed their faith and became good Catholicks. Since that time, the Doctor tells us, no less than five Bishopricks have been established in places, where, had the Inquisition extended its baneful authority, there would not have been one.”

If this be true, whatever the Romish Church may gain in Spain by patronizing the Inquisition, she loses much more elsewhere. And she loses it too, among people whose influence and example would be ten times more ex-

tensive than those of the Spaniards. For if we inquire what sort of people these Spaniards are? the answer will be little to their credit, as men and as Christians.

Are they thinking men? No :—They are enveloped in voluptuousness and indifference. Are they active men? No :—They enjoy the activity of others—amusements, frivolity, diversions, which delude the mind, without invigorating the body. They have talents it is true; but they do not use them. They have minds, but they rust in idleness. In short they are—but let their countryman Jovellanos say what they are, and then the wonder will cease that they are still under the yoke, the horrid yoke of the tyrannick Inquisition. “It is certainly,” he continues, “a great satisfaction to set out on a journey quite unconcerned, and to proceed on the road until you meet a guard stationed for collecting toll; to arrive pierced with cold and wet, at an inn there to have to look for a dinner from the monopolizers of wine and oil, meat, salt, and other necessaries of life; to lead your horse to a manger, and in addition to a payment for straw, to have to pay likewise for the right of tying him there; to procure a *fanega* of barley and to go to the corregidor to have it measured; to purchase a *pellego* of wine, to pay the price of a permit to take it out of the town; not at all to know whether you shall sleep in your own bed, or a gaol, because the *alcalde* has the power of making you pass a miserable night there, without assigning any reason. Bull-feasts are the links of our society; the food of our patriotism; the seminaries of our political manners. These feasts, which characterize us among all the nations of the earth, embrace as many agreeable and instructive objects, as it is possible to desire; they temper our excessive parsimony, enlighten our tender understandings, sweeten our humane inclinations, divert our laborious application, and prepare us for generous and magnanimous actions. The arts and sciences combine to render them perfect, and they materially assist in improving the arts and sciences; they procure even for the lower order, the blessings of ease and diversion, and prevent the evils of toil and labour; they encourage hospitals, which, (to the honour of modern nations be it related) they not only supply with medicines for the relief of the sick, but also with sick for the consumption of the medicines, which are the two indispensable

requisites to their prosperity ; they mortify the body with fatigue and patience under inconvenience, and fortify the mind by the most dreadful tragick scenes.

“ Who, accustomed in cold blood to see a man suspended on the horns of a bull, his entrails falling through an immense wound, and his blood overflowing the whole place ; a wounded horse that has thrown his rider, writhing and struggling in the agonies of death ; a troop of affrighted bull-fighters, flying from an enraged animal, pierced with darts ; the tumultuous shouting of an innumerable multitude, mingled with the harsh grating sounds of warlike instruments augmenting the confusion ; who, I say, after this would be moved at a battle or a defeat ! Who will not conceive sublime ideas of our nobles, eager to patronise these barbarous spectacles ; to honour the bull-fighters ; to reward desperation and madness ; and to vie with each other, in protecting the most villanous characters in the republick ? who would not be delighted with the numerous assemblage of both sexes, crowded together, without reserve ; tavernkeepers and grandees ; barbers and dukes ; courtezans and matrons ; laymen and clergy—where luxury, profligacy, shamelessness, libertinism, stupidity, and, in short, every vice which disgraces human nature, hold their court ?

“ There the licentious fop inflames the incautious damsel, by indecent words and gestures ; there the base husband places his wife by the side of her gallant ; there the cowardly bully musters up all his insolence ; there the smutty blacksmith utters words more indecent than himself, and the impudent fisherwoman makes a boast of her effrontery ; there the pressure, noise, heat, and dust, joined with the aromatick sweets of tobacco, wine and garlick, are sufficient to cause a suffocation.

“ Who will not acknowledge the innumerable benefits of these feasts ? Were it not for them, the tailor, iron-monger, and shoemaker would pass their Mondays in the vulgar labour of their trades ; mothers would not have a plea for leaving their houses and children to the neglect of some hireling ; in it they would lose a most barbarous market of modesty ; physicians, a most fruitful seminary for diseases ; husbands, a scene of their own iniquity and dishonour ; wives, an opportunity of improving themselves in prodigality and extravagance ; ecclesias-

ticks, an excuse for spending among sinners the price of their sins; philosophers, a most perfect compendium of human weakness; magistrates, the sure means of destroying all idea of civil liberty; tradesmen, the consolation of beholding the death of animals which, if living, would find them constant employment; and the whole kingdom the advantage of seeing the most fruitful lands (which should be exclusively appropriated to diversion and amusement) laid out in pasture.

“O magnificent feasts! O useful feasts! O delectable feasts! O pious feasts! O feasts, which are the most perfect crown of our wisdom! Strangers abominate you, because they know you not; but Spaniards prize you, for they alone can appreciate your value!

“If Rome lived contented with ‘bread and arms,’ Madrid feels quite satisfied with ‘bread and bulls!’

“O happy Spaniards, who, content with your own estate, envy not that of others! who, accustomed to govern nobody, obey all! Pursue these enlightened maxims—despise (as you have hitherto done) the idle babbling of envious strangers—abhor their turbulent maxims, condemn their free opinions—prohibit all their books, which have not passed the ‘holy table’—and sleep in peace, lulled by the hisses that decide you!”

FROM THE LITERARY PANORAMA.

Switzerland.

THE Bishoprick of Basle which is now united to the Canton of Berne, contains 62,000 inhabitants.

Excommunication of Mice!!!

A ceremony which, perhaps, might have been very good in the fifteenth century, but which one is astonished to find in an enlightened age, has been performed this week in the Catholic districts about Basle. A solemn malediction and excommunication has been pronounced against the mice guilty of committing depredations in the fields.

As it is scarcely possible that our readers should form any idea of this ceremony, we annex an account of it from one who had been a party to such *doings*! The arguments of the country people on one side, and of the priests on the other, deserve attention; as do, also, the facts narrated. We had indulged a hope that all such nonsensical farces, having been abolished by the French, would have slept the sleep of death. If these and similar customs be revived, the time is not far off that may teach Popery more effectual lessons.

“An observance in the church of *Rome*, which is most ridiculous,—is the exorcising of *Rats, Caterpillars, Flies*, and all other insects, between the feasts of *Easter* and *Ascension*. I, myself, have assisted very often, both in *France* and *Italy*, in performing this ceremony; herein I can say, that I have been among the number of fools; true it is—it was for our advantage; for we were well paid for our pains. We go from one farm to another, from one country-house to another, and almost upon every piece of ground we repeat our exorcisms. We bespeak all these little insects, no otherwise than if they were reasonable creatures, and make use of the name of God to adjure them.”

“*Adjuro vos per Deum Sanctum, per Deum vivum: per Deum Omnipotentem, etc.*”

“I adjure you by the Holy God, by the Living God, by the Almighty God, to depart these grounds, and to get you gone to desert and waste places, where you may not be in a condition of hurting any one, nor the fruits of the earth.”

“(If this be not to take the name of God in vain, I don’t know what is.) Besides, all this was nothing, but mere labour in vain; because there was not so much as one poor worm or caterpillar, that offered to budge from its place, for all this pother. When we were quite tired with exorcising, we went to refresh ourselves in the first farm that was next to us, where the good country people did not fail to set before us the best they had. We found some amongst them though, that were no fools; they told us, *Sirs, if we did not take pains to rid our trees of the caterpillars, your exorcisms would stand us in poor stead.* We reprov’d them for their want of faith, which rendered the pains we took unprofitable to them. The most part of the peasants, by way of acknowledgment for these exorcisms, send all their first fruits to the priests that have officiated in them, so that we had always the first fruit of every season.

I was once invited by a noble *Venetian*, to pass the time of *Vintage* with him in the country, at his house of pleasure, two miles from *Rovigo*, in the *Palesine*. When we arrived there, there was a kind of flies, which (as they said) were fallen from the sky, and did much mischief; they sucked and devoured all the grapes that were not yet ripe. The noble *Venetian* desired me to accompany the curate of the Parish, in order to exorcise them; accordingly we went thither with five or six clergymen more. The heat was so excessive, that we were forced to go for shelter into every house we met with in the fields. Now it happened by mischance, that he who carried the holy water, (whether by his having drunk much or otherwise) fell asleep in a cellar, where he had entered to cool himself. We did not take notice of his not following us, and we walked almost a mile to a certain field, where we were to exorcise. Here we began to call for our holy water, without which nothing was to be done; but the man was not to be found, and we were obliged to send some body to seek him with all speed. We stayed there near an hour, expecting him, and during that time the flies stung us so terribly, that our faces and hands were covered with blood; they plainly shewed by their rudeness, that they did not care a rush for our exorcisms, and accordingly, in our own defence, we despatched them as quick as possible, and with all expedition returned to our first house. These insects we found discharged their fury during the heat of the day; for towards evening one might safely walk abroad, without being molested by them. And then it was, that we went and recommenced our exorcisms, though without the least success; for the flies persisted to make the same havock as before, until that a continual rain of four or five days killed and swept them all away, better than all the holy water might have done.

I went at another time, during my stay at *Bonania*, to exorcise the insects in the country, in company of a country curate, who had a very comical wit. He did not tie himself to the ritual, or form prescribed by the *Romish* church, but made his paraphrase upon every thing; sometimes he spoke to the *pismires*; sometimes to the *grass-hoppers*; he made his apostrophes to the *rats*, *lizards*, and *worms*. He banished them all one after another, to the countries which he assigned them for the place of their

exile, and relegated the moles to the Antarctick Pole, without once knowing what it was. He had scarcely pronounced the dreadful sentence, but a *mole* came forth out of his hole, whereupon the curate cried out, *Courage, my friends, look! there's one of them which is ready to begin his march.* But the *mole*, it seems, had no mind to take so tedious a journey, but crept into another hole near to it in the same field. One of the peasants that was present, ran to look into the hole, to which the *mole* had betaken himself, and said very innocently, *What, Sir, is this the Antarctick Pole?*

PILLET'S VIEW OF ENGLAND.

[There was a work published last year in France, entitled *L'Angleterre, vue a Londres et dans ses Provinces*, by Major-General Pillet, a knight of St. Louis, and a member of the Legion of Honour. Of this book we know nothing more than what we have gathered by reading some extracts from it in different English periodical works; but judging from these, it may be pronounced with one exception, which we shall mention hereafter, the most infamous and impudent libel on a whole nation that has been produced for many years. For obvious reasons, we were curious to see this work treated in the *Quarterly Review*; it forms one of the articles of the 26th Number, and it is there said that General Pillet's book had a prodigious run in Paris—a whole edition was bought up in a few hours! by which it appears that malignity and absurdity, are read with as much eagerness and credulity at Paris as in London. The following extracts are a part of those made by the *Quarterly Review*.]

General Pillet, after having stated that 150,000 *Frenchmen had perished in tortures on board the English prison ships in the two last wars*, afterwards enters into some particular details.

“In the first war, 30,000 prisoners died in the course of five months of hunger; and I myself saw, at Norman Cross, a little corner of burial ground, into which 4000 had been huddled. *Every day hundreds of men died, either starved to*

death or *poisoned* by the bad qualities of the provisions. Our hunger no longer knew any bounds. We kept the dead bodies of our comrades five or six days, that we might draw their rations. One day my Lord *Cordower* (Cawdor) Colonel of the Carmarthen militia, which was guarding the prison at Porchester, having occasion to enter the prison, tied his horse to the rails; in ten minutes the horse was torn to pieces and devoured. When my lord came out he was surprised not to find his horse, and would not believe what had happened to him till he was shewn the bowels and *skin*, which a miserable starved wretch *finished* devouring in his presence! an enormous butcher's dog, and indeed *every* dog which entered the prison, was eaten in the same way."

[The Reviewer remarks "General Pillet enters into a long and curious calculation of the number of criminals in the United Kingdom, 'from which' he says 'it results, that whenever in this country, so famed for his probity and morals, you meet a society of twenty persons, one may be certain that amongst them there is *at least* one thief or one murderer.'" We should like to compare this *long and curious calculation* with one which deserved both these epithets, on which, this same review, citing the authority of Cobbet, founded such a triumphant statement of the profligacy of married life in this country.]

"The degradation of women (whom the English amiably call an inferior species in the creation) has arisen to such a pitch, that the murder of a married woman, by her husband, is an event of which the tribunals hardly ever think of taking cognizance, unless sometimes for the purpose of white-washing the husband, if the circumstances of the case have been so atrocious as to make any noise. Perhaps it will be thought I exaggerate, when I say that it appears by the public papers, between December, 1807, and June, 1813, that 171 wives were murdered by their husbands; but the *fact is as certain as it is easy of proof!*—but what is surprising is, that of these 171 murderers we find there was but ONE person punished. It is impossible exactly to calculate the number of *secret* murders, but one year with another, they must amount to many thousands. In fact, there are few men in England, of the age of fifty years, who have not married three times."

"The practice of the English clergy *reading* their sermons,

arises from a *political* cause. Every clergyman is obliged to submit his discourse to a magistrate, and to *make an affidavit* that he has used or will use no other words than those which are written in the copy laid before the magistrate."

"Nothing is more surprising than the hideous uniformity of female dress. The wife of the country shoemaker, butcher or laborer, are all like the same classes in London, *ladies*; and the only difference between the appearance of these ladies and the wives of London gentlemen, is not in favour of the latter, as it consists only in their greater slovenliness. The awkwardness of all, in dress and manner, being the same, it would be wrong to expect to distinguish the ranks of society by ease or decorum of manners. English women in general, no matter of what condition, are destitute of grace and taste, and one may literally say that an English woman has two left hands."

"Shoplifting is very much in fashion, as I have just said, *but more particularly among ladies of rank*. The shopkeepers of New Bond street (the Rue Vivienne of Paris) were formerly proud of visits from those *ladies*, which, however, they always paid for by the loss of goods which the ladies carried off under their petticoats; but the shopkeepers consoling themselves for the loss by the privilege which they obtained of writing on their signs, 'Milliner to my lady this or that.' These are incontestable facts!"

"Every one may remark, that in an English drawingroom, about tea time, the ladies are *tipsy (entre deux vins)*, though they are seldom seen to drink more than one little glass of wine at dinner. The opportunity for these ladies is when they retire from the gentlemen. A mysterious temple is destined to the same bacchanal uses as the gentlemen's dining room, and the only difference is the liquor drank—the gentlemen drink Port, Madeira, Claret and Champagne—the *ladies* drink *only* the best French brandy."

"Young ladies are only admitted to this circle of sobriety after a sort of trial and a certain age, namely, about forty; after which period every *English woman* of rank or fashion gets drunk every night of her life, under pretence of keeping the wind out of her stomach!"

“The cause of that general spirit of licentious intrigue, of *libertinism*, in which girls of *all* classes live in England, is to be found in the difficulty of marriages, and the manner in which those marriages are undertaken. In France we have a proverb that ‘a girl should wait till she is asked;’ precisely the contrary prevails in England. *ALL* the young women of England live in a state of incontinence, and neither the peasant, the squire, nor the lord has ever the least scruple in the choice of a wife, from what may have occurred previously to marriage.”

“The least dissolute class of women in England are, undoubtedly, *waiting women* in great families, who speculate on marrying the young lord, or some old rich and gouty voluptuary, if they keep a kind of character.”

“The virtue of English women is that of slaves; it lasts just as long as the watchfulness of the beast to whom they have been married.”

The Reviewers conclude the article with the following observations.

“Our indignation does not, however, arise from any effect which General Pillet’s absurd calumnies have on our temper as Englishmen: his malice is often so complimentary, and when it is not, it so ridiculously defeats itself that we really think that he has paid to our national character the only compliment which *such a fellow* could pay; but we regret, deeply regret, to perceive that a work so indecent and in every way so shocking can be even *tolerated* in France.—In France, the royal family and nobility of which, are bound to this country by the most sacred ties of private and national hospitality and friendship—in France, whose boast it used to be, that her sons were brave in the field, amiable in society, generous even in their enmities, and chivalrously respectful to the softer sex.—It is a bad sign, that a wretch who is the very reverse of this character, should *dare* to offer such a work to the eyes of society. To say that the book is popular, would be to attribute to France almost as great a laxity of morals as General Pillet attributes to England, for no modest eye can look on its pages without shame and horror; and we cannot but lament the fate of the King of France, and tremble for the stability of his throne, when he finds himself obliged to maintain such a *stigmatized liar*, a wretch so lost to all sense of truth, ho-

nour and *manhood*, in the rank of Major-General of his army, and as a knight (proh pudor) of the royal and honourable order of *St. Louis*. As for the *Legion of Honour*, it is at once good policy and strict justice that men who resemble its founder should continue to fill its ranks."

After reading these extracts from General Pillet's work, we may believe the assertion of the Reviewer, that he had repeatedly broke his parole of honour while a prisoner, and for which he was confined during the greater part of his residence in England, to a prison ship in the River Medway, and was therefore admirably calculated to give a description of the manners of the country. We agree in covering him with all the opprobrium and infamy that he deserves; but we must place under the same mantle the Quarterly Review.

We are ready to agree that his work is, with one exception, the most base, most absurd, most infamous libel on a whole nation, that has been produced in modern times—the exception is the article on Inchiquin's Letters in the Quarterly Review.

Manners of the people of the United States.

A writer in one of the French journals lately imported, inquires what can be the reason, why the opinions formed on the manners of the Anglo-Americans, should be so contrary as they are among the French and English writers?—meaning travellers who have visited the country of America. The French, who pique themselves on the sociability of their national manners, express themselves as if they were highly delighted with the manners of America, which it is well known are almost anti-social; while the English, whose national manners are certainly somewhat blunt, are little less than disgusted with the manners of America, which are somewhat less refined than their own. A solution of this contradiction is desired by the Journalist alluded to: it is at least a curious problem.

LIT. PAN.

Strength of different Wines.

An article in Ackerman's Repository for January, on the subject of Wine, contains the following :

The wines of Portugal which are mostly red, differ very much from all other wines, in containing besides the usual ingredients, a considerable portion of *tan* ; and hence they have a rough and astringent taste. The quantity of tanning matter may readily be ascertained, from the quantity of a solution of isinglass or glue, which they are capable of decomposing. From this fact we might be led to suppose, that those who drink large quantities of port wine, stood a chance of having their stomachs tanned, or more or less converted into leather. Indeed it is not impossible that the coats of that organ may become, in some measure, hardened by the constant use of this liquor. From an extensive series of experiments made, the following facts have been ascertained.

Table shewing the quantity of highly rectified spirit of wine, or alcohol, contained in various kinds of wine.

100 parts of Port Wine afforded upon an average 21.50 parts of alcohol.

Ditto, highest	-	-	-	-	-	32.46
Ditto, lowest	-	-	-	-	-	16.25
Sherry, six samples on an average	-	-	-	-	-	18.00
Ditto, highest	-	-	-	-	-	21.81
Ditto, lowest	-	-	-	-	-	16.75
Madeira, four samples on an average highest	-	-	-	-	-	19.00
Ditto, lowest	-	-	-	-	-	16.75
Claret, average of eight samples	-	-	-	-	-	12.00
Lisbon, average of four samples	-	-	-	-	-	10.75
Burgundy, four samples highest	-	-	-	-	-	9.50
Ditto, six samples lowest	-	-	-	-	-	7.00
Hock, four samples	-	-	-	-	-	36.75
Vin de Grave, four samples	-	-	-	-	-	6.00
Cape Madeira, two samples	-	-	-	-	-	16.00

Some doubt may perhaps be excited of the accuracy of this statement, by a reference to the comparative intoxicating effects of wine when compared with the same quantity of alcohol or brandy. But let it be remembered, that in wine the alcohol exists in a state of chemical combination with other substances, which necessarily diminishes its activity on the animal system.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

WRITTEN ON THE BANKS OF THE PENOBSCOT.

WITH rapture fair river, I'd gaze on thy stream,
And mark its smooth current fast-gliding along;
With fancy enraptur'd, and love for my theme,
I'd revel unbounded, in regions of song.

When the moon on thy bosom reflected appears,
And darts thro' the forest a flickering ray:
Sweet emblem of hope,—thro' the vista of years,
Alone I would wander, alone I would stray.

The days that are perish'd, I fain would recall,
And catch the last echo that hangs on the breeze:
I'd tread on the site of yon desolate hall,*
Where beauty once loiter'd in elegant ease.

Here bloom'd fair as nature, the rose of the wood,
And blushing with fragrance, enliven'd the scene;
Here a garden of flowers, once enchantingly stood,
But memory weeps where their odours have been.

Forgetfulness shrouds in the mansions beneath,
The hero whose record of fame is unknown,
Whose spirit undaunted look'd smiling on death,
And flew to the realms where his fathers had gone.

While musing thus fondly on scenes that are past,
So dear to the fancy and sweet to the soul,
I'd willingly fly on the wings of the blast,
And sleep where the billows incessantly roll.

There peacefully slumber o'erwhelm'd in the wave,
No friend near the spot my short story to tell,
Deep, deep in the caverns of coral my grave,
The pearl for my pillow, the surge for my knell.

B.

* Alluding to the mansion of the celebrated chief Castine, whose haram, it is recorded, would rival that of a Turkish Sultan.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

THE SURGEONS.

A TALE FOUNDED ON FACT.

ONCE in December's cold and bitter night,
When the chill tempest rag'd with boldest flight,
And chain'd in frost the spirit of the flood;
A wight who fear'd nor storm, nor winter's sway,
Along the dreary city took his way,
Not shunning harm, or meditating good.

Long time he rang'd, but nought of sport had found,
Till slow returning from his nightly round,
A grave physician meets his eager eyes,
One who was much in thought, but seldom spoke,
And "fine," he cries, "'twould be to pass a joke,
"On one so philosophick and so wise."

Light as a spectre at his side he stands,
With doleful accent, and imploring hands:

"To Dr. Wiseman, I am sent in haste,
"From Mrs. Comic,—she whose lone abode,
"Is five miles out upon the northern road,
"Just in the eye and forehead of the blast.

"In stepping from a coach, it was her fate
"To fall,—you know, Good Sir, her size and weight.
"A fractur'd limb was seen, in crimson dyed;
"And though I grieve to name so hard a task,
"Yet to a heart like yours 'tis but to ask,
"And Sorrow's claims can never be denied."

The Doctor paus'd,—some treaty to conclude,
Between his Conscience, and the wintry feud:
Turn'd to the north,—receiv'd the nipping air,—
His thoughtful finger on his forehead laid,—
Shorten'd his rein,—applied his spur,—and said,
Like Hamlet to the Ghost—"I'll meet thee there."

And now the wag another Surgeon spies,
Who to his lov'd abode, impatient flies,
Exulting in the hope once more to find,
As cordial for the perils of the storm,—
A fire-bright-blazing, and a supper warm,
And the fond welcome of affection kind.

“ Doctor !—pray stop !” but swifter flew his steed,
“ Good Doctor Euston !” —not a whit his speed
Was staid,—for now his pleasant court he gains:
But as he thought to close his swift career,
The wily wag his unclos’d gate drew near,
And seiz’d with quick and fearless hand, the reins.

“ It is a case of great distress,” — he cries.
“ I cannot help it :” —the tir’d man replies,
Jerking his bridle with a face of wo :
“ These fourteen hours I’ve brav’d the tempest shock,
“ I have not tasted food since eight o’clock,
“ Or slept in quiet since three nights ago.”

“ Your dear friend Comic’s wife, it is who lies
“ Fractur’d and bruis’d,—in frightful agonies,—
“ Nought else could move me to so bold a strife,”
“ ’Tis five miles out of town ;—the storm is flying,” —
“ I tell you man,—tho’ all the world were dying,
“ Still ’tis my duty to prolong *my* life.”

“ I hop’d your long acquaintance there might move,
“ So warm a heart to do this deed of love ;
“ Beside,—all other Surgeons she forbade ;
“ But if you still refuse,—then be it so—
“ And though I much regret it, I must go,
“ And quick solicit Dr. Wiseman’s aid.”

“ Solicit Wiseman !—Better seek a rope !—
“ Trust Mrs. Comic with that stupid mope !—
“ She’d die ten times while he was creeping there :”
Then turning round his horse in angry plight,—
Cries—“ I will perish in the storm to night,
“ Rather than she his blundering hand should bear.”

And as the mists of snow, and driving sleet
Against his breast and purple forehead beat,
He hoarsely murmur’d like the troubled sea,
“ Oh !—let no future wretch select the strife,
“ That waits the Esculapian’s luckless life,—
“ Toil,—toil,—age premature—and misery.”

The rattling hail that from the tiles did bound,
The torrents dashing on the frozen ground,
The horse, whose clattering hoofs the pavement spurn’d,
The roaring of the winds in moody fit,

Drown'd the loud laughter of that wicked wit,
Who leap'd for joy as down the street he turn'd.

Directly to a well-known door he flies,
And with main strength the troubled knocker plies,
The half stunn'd surgeon startled from his bed ;
But when he saw the perils of the storm,
Sprang back again into his covert warm,—
Resolving not to obey the summons dread.

A rapping at the window next succeeds ;
But this he answers not, and scarcely heeds,—
Till rattling glass began to strew the floor :
“ Within there, ho ! ”—a voice like thunder said,
“ Pray tell us, Doctor,—are you deaf, or dead ?—
“ Your windows I believe were crack'd before.”

“ Were crack'd before !—And who are you, I pray,
“ That makes this strange and bold discovery ?—say ! ”
A voice replies—“ I come to bring you news ;
“ A broken limb !—well broke !—short off, indeed,—
“ At Mrs. Comic's asks your utmost speed ;
“ I trust that you no job like this refuse.

“ A friend I am—and so I came to night,
“ Lest rapid Euston, always wing'd for flight ;
“ Or even moping Wiseman might be call'd :—
“ Anxious lest you should lose a chance so good,
“ This fearful pelting of the storm I've stood,
“ Unnotic'd labour'd—and unanswer'd bawl'd.”

“ Well, I'll get up !—oh !—hard the path to fame !—
“ Now I must toil,—but when I gain a name
“ I'll sleep all night, and lie in bed till noon.”

Off sprung the mischief-maker with a bound
To seek more victims for his mighty round,
And rous'd a Frenchman from his slumbers soon.

“ Now midnight's robe in heavy foldings flow'd,
And closely curtain'd Comic's fair abode,—
Around its roof the angry tempest rail'd ;
But then within its walls no rankling care,
Or waking thought maintain'd dominion there ;
Such silence soft,—and slumber sweet prevail'd.

When lo, a thundering peal, prolong'd and deep,
Startled the good man from his balmy sleep,—

Who scarce awake, seem'd murmuring in his dream ;
But loud, another, and another sounds,
And thus he speaks as from his couch he bounds—
“ What strange disturbance this ?—What midnight scheme !”

“ Yet, ah, perhaps some wretch with shrinking form,
“ Requires a shelter from the piercing storm.”

These thoughts his wonted energies restore ;
A hasty robe he o'er his shoulders throws,
Trims his wan lamp, and down the staircase goes,
And quick unbars his hospitable door.

But though no tatter'd beggar there he meets,—
No child of want, or wand'rer of the streets,—
His hand he rais'd to guard the quivering light,
And mutter'd—“ have the restless spirits that walk,
“ Chosen in Dr. Wiseman's shape to stalk !”
Anew he gaz'd,—yet scarce believ'd his sight.

Then did a solemn tone conviction lend,—
A tone he knew no voice but one could send ;
“ How is the sufferer ?”—The astonish'd host,
Faltering replied—“ Rejoic'd am I to hear
“ A mortal accent reassure my ear,
“ For I mistook you for some wandering ghost.”

Now Dr. Wiseman much the art did prize,
To read the mind's vibration in the eyes,
Counting himself in this a student deep ;
And well he knew that wild and fixing stare,
Must be the spirit's feature of despair,
That mourns o'er lost affection's breathless sleep.

Grasping his hand with sympathy severe,
And wondering he so well conceal'd the tear,
Even from his searching—“ Transient is our span !—
“ We all do perish !”—“ Yes !—and in the cold :—
“ This piercing air, dear Doctor, makes me bold
“ To force you in,”—replied the half dress'd man.

Fixing a look more stern, as if in strife,—
“ Speak to the question'd point.—How is your wife ?”
With deep surprise were Comic's features clad.
“ Doctor !— what strange chimera haunts your mind !—
“ I fear you are to lunacy inclin'd,—
“ Or that much learning, must have made you mad,”

" I heard your wife was hurt :—the sad appeal
 " Rous'd my compassion, and I came to heal,
 " Have almost froze myself, and lam'd my horse."—
 "What rogue, in wicked humour or in spite
 " Could send you here upon this dreadful night !
 " Yet I rejoice the evil is no worse."

" 'Tis bad enough :—Oh, miscreant base !" — he sigh'd :
 " Yet let us not be angry," — Comic cried,—
 " But make the best of what we cannot alter :"
 And as he fann'd his fire with cheerful blast,
 The man who seldom spoke now talk'd so fast,
 That with unwonted haste his tongue did falter.

While Comic's care the man of wisdom cheer'd,
 Loud in the hall a bustling noise he heard,—
 And lo !—the form of Dr. Euston stands,
 In fur-cap whiter than the Cygnet's plume
 With gather'd frost,—he hurries toward the room ;
 And "how is Mrs. Comic ?"—straight demands.

" She sleeps most sweetly," —said the smiling friend,
 And back the Doctor's úprais'd foot did tend ;
 As if some sudden cramp his pace might fetter ;
 " Asleep !—what !—do you think her life to save
 " With anodynes !—those cordials of the grave !—
 " I'm sure you ought to know my system better."

" You must have found a cold and dreary path,
 " While thus the elements conspire in wrath,
 " And the strong blasts their furious warfare wage :"
 " What care I for the blast ?—I live in storms !—
 " Why not a cloud the face of heaven deforms,
 " But I must buffet out its utmost rage."

Then rushing to the door with anxious eyes,
 The long and thoughtful face of Wiseman spies ;
 Who slowly turning round, attentive listen'd :—
 Like eager youth who sees the crested snake,
 Backward he sprung, and gestures wild did make,
 While his dilated eyes like meteors glisten'd.

" What !—are the demons loose,—and hold their court !—
 " If you have drawn me here to make you sport,
 " You, and your children's children shall lament it ;—

“ My friend,—you have been sported with ;—but yet
“ Since this kind visit is the fruit of wit,
“ I hope that neither of us shall repent it.”

“ Nay do, not brave so soon, this Greenland air :”
But fierce the Doctor threaten’d,—“ I declare,
“ I’ll have the wretch if earthly powers can find him.”
“ Let not a rogue so vile your wrath provoke,—
“ Come in,—be quiet,—and despise the joke,
“ And Wiseman, here, will teach you how to bind him.”

But breaking fiercely from the encircling clasp,
With which kind friendship sought to bind his grasp ;
Out to his tir’d and quivering steed he past.
In vain the most persuasive calls were sent,
For swifter than the archer’s shaft he went,
And passion’s gust was stronger than the blast,

But as his door the weary landlord clos’d,
He thought some outward force his arm oppos’d ;
And peeping through, beheld an ashen face.
A form that stood bewilder’d with affright,
Or stiffen’d by the horrors of the night ;
And seem’d to bow with more of pain than grace.

“ How is de patient, Sare ? I fain would know,
“ Before one footstep to de fire, I go :”—
“ Why man,—you shake like aspen in the gale.”
“ Yes, Sare,—dis petit storm, and wind dat blows—
“ And den my boots, indeed, are somevat froze.”
Then sliding, down he fell, benumb’d and pale.

“ Help ! Wiseman, help !”—the host is heard to cry,
“ Are all the Doctors coming here to die ?”
Forth moves the studious man in deep amaze,—
Both stoutly lifting, raise him from the floor,—
His temples chafe,—the ruddy wine they pour,
And wake to greater warmth the cheerful blaze.

Soon as the smoother’d flame of life resumes,
“ How is de patient ?”—a choak’d voice inquires,
Still unrecover’d from the swoon severe ;
“ Oh she is very well—she feels no ill,—
“ Let your own case, I pray, employ your skill ;
“ For sure there is no other patient here.”

Quick springing from his chair with ready bow,
Which weakness in its staggering made more low ;

“ And is your spouse reliev’d from her distress ?—

“ Dear sare !—you make me happy by de sound,

“ At de nouvelle my heart so high do bound,

“ Dat words will not my plaisir grand express.”

“ Oh I doubt not your happiness is great,—

“ Yet still I do beseech, you, keep your seat ;

“ The Doctor here and I have lifted hard,

“ And I should much regret it to perceive

“ You stretch’d again at length,—and deep should grieve

“ That such hard service found such hard reward.”

“ I beg ten thousand pardons !—but I hear

“ Madame had fallen,—and I never fear

“ De wind when duty call me to *distre*’;

“ But den de fire, dear Sare, do burn so warm,

“ And is so vastly better dan de storm,

“ Dat I will still be seated s’il vous *plait*.”

But bows and compliments were all cut short

By echoes loud, and trampling in the court,

And tones of loud debate, and thundering knock ;

Then comic runs,—“ Tom !—William !—who’s below ?—

“ Call up the maids,---each in their turn shall go ;

“ ’Tis hard to stand alone in siege and shock.”

Thicken’d the crowd ;—for in possession long,

The well stack’d city pour’d her healing throng,—

With such a stamping, such a mingled call,

“ How’s Mrs. Comic ?—Where may she be found ?—

“ What room ?—which way ?”—and then the knocker’s sound,

With deaf’ning clamour would reply to all.

At length these peals the patient’s slumbers broke,

Who starting, as her name was call’d,—awoke,

In sudden tremours, gazing wildly round,---

Remember’d scenes of dark romance arose ;

Murder and theft ;—and o’er her head she throws,

An ample covering to exclude the sound.

But all in vain !—tumultuous tones of dread

Press through each folding that her care could spread ;

And long appall’d her with a shuddering pang :

At length a softer sound like mirth she hears,
And Curiosity so check'd her fears,
That rising up, her shrill-ton'd bell she rang.

And long she toil'd unheard,—before a maid
Who caught a distant echo, came to aid ;

Both, then impatient, the same instant spoke,
“ What is the matter ?—tell me quick the doom !”
“ Why Ma'am, the city Doctors all have come
“ To mend your bones which they declare are broke.”

“ And could they find no broken limbs at home,
“ That they at midnight in the storm must come
“ This tedious road ?—At what do they exclaim !—
“ 'Tis strange that I should cause this great alarm,
“ Yet be the last of all to know the harm :
“ You might have shut them out.—You're all to blame.”

“ Dear Ma'am, we could not hear you ring or call,
“ Between the loud winds, and the Doctors all :
“ Why such a clatter,—such a whirl was brewing ;”
“ A whirl indeed !—Since Bable was o'erthrown,
“ I think no such confusion has been known :—
“ How do they make the noise ?—What are they doing ?”

“ They make it knocking, Ma'am—and crowding thick,
“ And tumbling in the entry, cold and sick,—
“ And scolding about blasts and mad December ;
“ But now they're growing still,—and sit as meek,
“ Close by the fire,—and long hard words they speak ;
“ Such as I'm sure I never could remember.

“ They talk of limbs all *fraction'd*—black and blue,
“ Such as they all come out to find on you ;
“ Because they said, how from the coach you fell ;—
“ And one makes bows,—and a strange gibberish talks,—
“ And some look wise as owls,—and master walks,
“ And runs, and waits, and says that you are well.”

“ Well, since they're here and cannot get away
“ While this wild tempest raves with deaf'ning sway,—
“ Go bid the servants, order to maintain,—
“ Prepare a supper of the nicest kind,
“ Renew the fires,—shut out the freezing wind,
“ And I will strive my slumbers to regain.”

Long seem'd the interval of tumult dire,
Before each traveller, seated by the fire,
From doubt reliev'd, would clear his cloudy brow.
Then rose a table as by magic stor'd,—
And standing near his nobly-furnish'd board,
Their host bespoke them thus, with graceful bow :

“ In annals high, and ancient page we read
“ Of one to whom was sent with equal speed,
“ And treading on each other's heels,—a train ;
“ But I to him of Uz, am thus preferr'd,—
“ My friends outnumber his---and still their word,
“ Is but to heal, and not increase my pain.
“ Computing too, from this your present speed,
“ A greater zeal in real time of need ;
“ We greet with cordial thanks each honour'd guest,
“ Although regretting that your journey here
“ Should prove so inconvenient, and so drear,
“ Still take our welcome to this friendly feast.
“ She, too, whose fancied pains you came to aid,
“ Though somewhat startled at the noise you made,
“ Unites her welcome, and her thanks to mine :
“ With these she bids me add a friendly call,
“ That those who have not colds, or sing at all,
“ Would freely in these artless numbers join.”

THE SONG.

Hail to the friends, whose kind voices I hear,
That rise in a chorus to meet me above,
The prelude at first, was but harsh to my ear,
“ Yet it soften'd and sunk to an errand of love.
Oh, let our social feast, far from each gentle guest,
Banish all feeling of anger and wo ;
And then when the golden day, drives these foul mists away,
Homeward in peace and serenity go.

Dismiss'd from each heart, be its burden of care,
And all in the ardour of friendship unite,
May your toils be successful,—your prospects all fair,
And smoother your life than your journey to night.
Oh, let our social feast, far from each welcome guest,
Banish all feeling of anger and wo :
And then when the golden day, drives these foul mists away,
Homeward in peace and serenity go.

THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

* *Appercu sur la situation politique des Etats Unis d'Amerique, par le General Turreau, ancien Ministre plenipotentiaire, de France aux Etats Unis d'Amerique.*

Prima fere vota et cunctis notissima templis

Divitiæ ut crescunt, ut opes, ut maxima toto

Nostra sit arca foro.

Juvenal Sat 10.

A Paris chez Firmin Didot, imprimeur du Roi. 1815, 8vo. pp. 154.

It has been our lot to be so ill-treated by foreigners ; the travellers who have described us have been with very few exceptions so ignorant or so profligate, that we almost despair of an able and unprejudiced account of the United States from a European. Every year adds new productions to the long list already existing, and for the most part in the same spirit with those which have preceded. Though repeated failures have lessened our expectations, they have not extinguished our desire, to see this country described by some manly foreigner, who should have access to good society, and possess intelligence enough to comprehend our institutions, and sufficient sagacity to remark their effects on the character and condition of our citizens. Under these feelings, we took up the work before us with considerable eagerness. An official station is perhaps not the most advantageous position for viewing a nation at large, yet in some respects it possesses peculiar advantages. It is a very uncommon circumstance for a diplomatick character to describe politically a country in which he has resided ; there are many obvious considerations to prevent this from being done. When therefore we found a view of our political situation by a foreign Ambassador who had resided among us eight years, and that too a period of striking interest, we felt the strongest curiosity to peruse his work. Under these circumstances, we might easily have expected too much ; but we confess we were wholly unprepared for utter disappointment. We do not recollect to have met before with any work, which discovered more profound ignorance of our insti-

* At the Athæneum.

tutions, more gross and indiscriminate abuse of our character, more incoherent and absurd reasoning, more rash and ridiculous opinions delivered in an oracular style, more mischievous or vague and puerile advice, as to our future policy.

General Turreau, says, that his book was completed in 1811, and shewn to a gentleman in Paris, of this it bears intrinsic evidence. Considerations, *majeures* as he says, then prevented its publication, and there was a good deal of magnanimity in publishing last year, opinions which events had already falsified. Preceding the preface, there is an *avertissement* to the following effect. "It is for the United States, and only for the United States, that these pages have been written."

"Every thing which may be found in them against democratic and commercial institutions, and above all, against their union in the same system, can have no relation and cannot be applied, except to the actual political situation of North America, that is to say, to the Federal government of the American Union.

"I should further premise, that I only consider the United States of America in a general point of view. The reader may presume, that a country so peopled, constituted and governed, offers a crowd of exceptions, which it is impossible to particularize in a sketch so rapid and circumscribed as the present."

The author thus announces, that his opinions are given for our use alone. It is one of the cases where the proverb will well apply; "not to look a gift-horse in the mouth," but as it was intended for our use, we are disposed to do all in our power to make it answer the design. In his preface he says, that we Americans derided all the ancient introvertible maxims of government, which the statesmen of all ages had agreed upon, and which time had consecrated; and that the founders of our constitutions, betrayed the most consummate ignorance. He quotes from Mr. Barlow's prospectus on the subject of a national institution, a warm eulogium of our principles of government, and afterwards a passage in which Mr. Barlow says, "if these principles are not new, they are at least new combinations of principles, which require to be developed and examined and better understood than they are even by ourselves."

on this, the General observes, "Here without doubt, is enough to enable us to form a conclusion on the Federal system of the United States of America. The Americans agree that they do not understand it, and that it is not understood even by those who admire it. This consoles us a little after having studied for eight years, without comprehending any thing about it. However, if the world be convinced as the author well remarks, that this system is the most perfect that has been discovered in matters of government, it is not absolutely necessary that one should comprehend the theory. It is in action, and we can judge much better by facts than by reasonings of the merit of this sublime conception." He then goes on, "We however, lay it down as a principle, that it is impossible that a state at once democrattick and trading can have a long political existence."

There is, perhaps, less merit in the author's frank avowal, of his being utterly ignorant of the theory of our constitution after eight years study, as the whole work affords such convincing proof of it. His whole reasoning is founded on two prodigious mistakes of fact; and his whole advice on two monstrous perversions of judgment. The former consists in supposing our government to be a simple democracy, and that we are exclusively a commercial people; the latter, in thinking, what he supposes is our political system, to be the most desirable form of government, and that we should sacrifice and prohibit all commerce for the purpose of maintaining it. The subject is too familiar to our readers, to render it necessary for us to refute this error by a discussion on the nature of our constitution, which though it was an emanation from democrattick will, the adoption of universal suffrage, and is founded on a democrattick basis, is yet so assisted and modified in its operation, by aristocratick and monarchical processes and forms of action, that it is we devoutly hope, sufficiently removed for its own stability, from that most visionary, disastrous and fleeting of all forms of government, a simple democracy. The subject of commerce, we shall observe upon, after making another extract.

"Whatever may be the form of governments in our time in the civilized world, and the greater or less degree of abuse inseparable from their action, you may see in almost every country, the dispositions of the people analogous to their

geographical position, because they have been formed or preserved by institutions suited to that position.

“ But the legislators of the United States have added to the vices of their institutions, all the other means of influence which were given them by their right, at that time legitimate, to public confidence, to keep up or originate among the people, inclinations directly opposed to those, which the circumstances of time and place required. What have been the consequences, that the Americans are agglomerated, prest together on the sea coast of their territory ; that they occupy under a murderous climate, an ungrateful soil, sandy and arid, while immense territories, of a prodigious fertility, and placed under a purer sky, remain uncultivated and uninhabited. The extent of the United States, embracing so many latitudes, its productions vary as we may say for each degree of the scale, and offer infinite resources to a laborious and cultivating people. What then was the intention of nature, in regard to this vast country, and what should have been that of policy in regard to its inhabitants ? I know that it will be answered, that the state of penury in which the Americans found themselves at the epoch of their peace with England, was the reason which seemed to exact from them, that they should give the preference to those means, which would give them an easy and more rapid amelioration of the publick fortune. But the slightest reflection, destroys all the objections that can be adduced. It is when a people is poor, that it is less difficult to impose a constitution, to give to institutions the ascendent over simple prejudices of habit, and to change even if it be necessary, the state of manners. Were the Americans poor in territory that they could not cultivate ? their territory offered them real and certain riches : why seek for illusory ones in the dangerous chances of an exterior commerce, place themselves in concurrence, and thus provoke an unequal contest with the first maritime power of the world ?

“ But it will be said, that the population has more than doubled in the United States since the epoch of their revolution. The increase of population has been every where, and in all times the strongest proof of the goodness of institutions, and of their agreeing with the manners and prejudices of the people.

“I do not believe that the second part of this proposition is untrue in its general application : but I am going to prove, that no consequence can be drawn from it in favour of the American confederation.*

“In admitting that the white population of the United States, was only two millions of inhabitants twenty-five years ago, and that it is now six, which seems to us so exaggerated, it cannot at least be denied, that this rapid augmentation, belongs more to foreign than to local causes, and much less, to the will of individuals ; and without examining here, what degree of confidence can be reasonably accorded to men employed in taking the particular census in each state, and above all, to those whose duty it is to aid results in a country where the governed as well as the governing wish to be *great* beyond measure, without dwelling on the defect of connected and regular statistical details, the excessive individual liberty, the total absence of regulations of police, that of taxes—the abuse or contempt of laws relating to elections—the frequent transmigrations of the inhabitants from one state to another, a mania common enough in the whole union, and which does not say much in favour of local affections, the constant movement of strangers recently arrived, who run over the space in every direction that separates Boston from New-Orleans, in the hope of finding the land of promise ;† the particular pretensions of each state, and the vanity of *all*, which are so

* The crowd of emigrants, who for the last twenty years particularly, have thrown themselves into the United States, and which forms now at least a quarter of the population, has been urged by nearly the same motives. All these new comers have necessarily carried their prejudices of birth, their political and religious opinions. These first impressions were weakened without doubt, by the instant effect of other moral circumstances, and the necessity of submitting to them. But we think that it would be an error to believe that they are destroyed. It is easy to perceive in observing the United States, that all the ancient prejudices resume their empire among these new inhabitants, as soon as they can free themselves from the yoke of want, and give themselves up to all the illusions of individual independence. Hence that diversity of views, of projects, of opinions, of sentiments and interests, which appears to us to be the characteristic trait of this singular aggregation.

† It is a curious thing enough, to hear the Americans talk of their country, and to see some strangers receiving currently every thing they relate. The sad remains of the establishments on the Scioto may suffice to guard credulous men against this kind of seduction. However, the United States offer to strangers some real advantages in many respects. We shall speak of them.

many obstacles to a just numerical valuation of the inhabitants ; we shall only say, that in a country where the bills of mortality* offer us a daily list of victims to consumption, cholera morbus, scurvy, spotted fever, croup, yellow fever and other maladies, some very uncommon, the others unknown in Europe ; we must assert, that in a country where the physical education of children is abandoned to the care of chance ; where that of youth is delivered over to the seductions of every pleasure and of every disorder, in a country where the malignant quality of the waters, the abuse in the use of Madeira, of spirit, and generally a bad diet, decompose the blood in the prime of life, prematurely bring on old age and decay, and afflict families with those cronick and hereditary disorders, which extend their ravages through all the branches of the connexion ; in such a country, it is difficult to attribute such a prodigious increase of population simply to natural and local causes.

“ But if we pay attention to the movements which have agitated Europe for twenty years ; if we consider that the effects of the French Revolution were not confined to France, that they have operated a political schism in all the bordering states, where the ascendancy of her arms assured a triumph to the opinion of the day and the party which inspired it. That victory sometimes alternating, and prolonging therefore, the hope of opposite factions, render the insolence of the victors more insupportable, and the danger of the vanquished more imminent ; that these latter often owed their safety only to a forced or voluntary exile ; if we learn that at this epoch, American Missionaries, animated with a fervour truly apostolick, running over France, Holland, Germany, and even Switzerland, seconded or created among the inhabitants a disposition to emigration, and directed it towards the U. States, towards that fortunate country, where might be realized in favour of new comers, all the fables of the Eldorado ; if we recollect, that at the same epoch, Ireland having been the theatre of new troubles,

* Life is speedily used up in the United States, and generally, they die young. It has often happened to me to walk for hours together in the most populous streets of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New-York, without meeting a single old man.

new proscriptions forced away a great number of the inhabitants; if we further recollect, that a part of the Antilles, and particularly St. Domingo, shaken to their very foundations by the shock of the mother country, threw on the shores of the United States, a crowd of colonists who escaped from the sword of the Africans: if it is considered that the American government, wishing to increase their people, *perfas et nefas*, excite desertion among the crews of European vessels frequenting their ports, and secretly protect deserters against the laws of nations, and sometimes in defiance of the most formal treaties: if it is considered that strangers who have drawn upon them in their own country, the watchfulness of the police, and the particular notice of the law, find in the United States, in the indolence of their institutions and the improvidence of legislators impunity for past crimes, and a kind of guarantee for new ones: if it is considered in fine, that among the naturalized, there are a great number of *new English* (*Anglais nouveaux*), whose *political* domicile can only be attributed to the interest of affairs or of events, we shall know the principal causes of the increase of population in the states of the American Union.

“It is then, to circumstances purely casual, and not to the simplicity of manners, or to the goodness of their institutions, and still less to the influence of commerce, that we may reasonably attribute the astonishing multiplication of the inhabitants of the United States; and the progress of their population depends so much on the causes we have assigned for it, that the first result of their approaching rupture with England will be a perceptible diminution of that population. We venture to predict still further, wishing at the same time, that we may be deceived, that the return of peace and even of advantageous peace, will not hinder the Americans from decreasing, unless they amend their institutions, or unless they renounce all foreign commerce.

“But before proving that such a commerce cannot procure for the States a real and durable prosperity, let us examine what has ever been the destiny of trading nations.

“The ancient legislators and philosophical writers of all times, have considered commerce as the last resource of corrupted nations, and as the least honourable of national professions. If among those who were called to give laws, or to

govern states, there were any who thought it proper to employ this spring to aid the progress of publick administration, it is because they were constrained to it by the imperious disposition of locality and circumstances.

“Commerce in general deteriorates the moral, as well as the physical character of a people, because it infects with its vices, not only the individuals who exercise it directly, but still more, because it extends and prolongs its ravages over every branch of the community, and through the whole chain of generations.

“Commerce destroys the local affections ; weakens family connexions ; essentially the enemy of generous ideas and liberal principles, it corrupts every mind, deforms every character, and depraves every sentiment. In fact, the trader, (*marchand*) and I comprehend in this denomination all the artizans of commerce, from the shopkeeper to the merchant of the highest order, who only speculates in the perfumes of Arabia, the spices of India, and the blood of Africans. The trader, I have said, has but one principle, one interest, one object, to which he refers every thing, submits every thing, sacrifices every thing. Selfishness is the doctrine of the trade, and he becomes selfish ; it is necessary that he should be economical, and he becomes avaricious. The concurrence of sellers renders him envious ; that of buyers makes him covetous. The merchant turns to his profit all the errors of approximation ; he furnishes at a maximum and sells at a minimum of weights and measures. He gives to all objects of his traffick an arbitrary and factitious value, were it the current price (*futelle le prix courant*) since they can receive nothing real, except their intrinsic value and except the cost of the matter and of its fabrication. (*Puisqu'ils n'en peuvent recevoir de réelle, que de leur valeur intrinsèque, que du coût des matières et de la fabrication.*) The trader imposes a forced contribution upon every thing that surrounds him. The consumer is always the victim of his avidity. Is he privileged ? he monopolizes. Is he subjected to taxes ? it is again the consumers who pay them. Is any merchandize scarce ? the price rises, and the sum of privations and general want becomes the tariff of the trader. In fine, commerce by engrossing all the resources of individuals, pumps and dries up insensibly the national resources ; and such is the homicidal privilege

of this anti-social profession, that the times of general distress are almost always the epoch of its prosperity ; and the greater part of mercantile fortunes are at once the cause and effect of publick misery.*

“ Long details would be useless to prove that commerce deteriorates the physical constitution of a people, since it corrupts that of individuals. We will observe only, that it has rendered common to all climates those fatal epidemics, which during the last two centuries especially, have spread over different parts of the globe, and from which there is no escape for the victim, but expatriation. And we will add, that it is always in maritime cities or in those where there are great entrepôts of commerce, that the first symptoms of all epidemic maladies are shewn, a modern scourge of which it is impossible to calculate the duration, to moderate the influence, or to arrest the ravages. It is said, (it is in the United States that they say so) that commerce aided by democracy, renders a nation rich, powerful and prosperous. The assertion is at least hazardous. It is not difficult to destroy it with a knowledge of the constituent principle of a democracy, and of the

* “ When I speak thus of commerce, it may be easily presumed, that it is not to proscribe the exchange of useful objects or their value ; it is not to blame that innocent and liberal traffick, which operating between neighbours, is an additional claim of connexion for the citizens. I shall observe only, that in this point of view, we should encourage in a state all the relations between man and man, they must be restrained as much as possible, between one state and another, that is to say, between your own citizens and foreigners. For that is the principle of all the disorders that can afflict a weak government, that is to say, a democratick government ; and it is commerce again, that produces all these disorders in multiplying the points of contact between strangers and the citizens. It is thus that it *denationalizes* individuals ; that it extinguishes the love of country, that it takes possession of every will and directs them towards its sphere of activity ; it is thus that it becomes a power in the state ; it is thus that the state loses its citizens, and has insensibly nothing but shopkeepers, lawyers and journalists. There too, patriotism is in every mouth, and selfishness in every heart. It is there too, that a government weak in its nature, and still more by the feebleness and incoherence of its institutions, having no longer either will or spontaneous action, is constrained not only to cede but to aid the dominant party, and thus to lose the very last of its means, the force of inertness. We beg, however, the reader not to forget, that all we say against this monstrous alliance of democracy and commerce, should be particularly applied to the political situation of the Americans.”

elements which compose it, and in attending to the precision as well as to the justness of our expressions; for in a country where the prevailing religion is that of commerce, and where necessarily you can have no discussion but with shopkeepers or lawyers, one must be ready to discuss the value of words, as well as that of merchandize.

“Commerce demands entire liberty. All the regulations which the state would impose upon it, will be always in direct opposition to its interests. If they favour it, it will be in evident contradiction with democrattick institutions. If, as a celebrated writer has said, and experience has proved, ‘a democrattick government is only suitable for poor and small states,’ it is absurd to constitute and endeavour to render stable, a state at once democrattick and trading. In fact, a democrattick government proscribes luxury; or rather it is kept off by the publick manners;* for when a democracy feels the want of sumptuary laws it is already on the decline. But the speculations of commerce bear in reality only on superfluities, on foreign productions, and generally upon all the objects to which caprice, aided by wealth, assigns a value as imaginary, as the wants that attract them. The laws, infinitely multiplied, are necessarily complicated in a state given up to commerce. A small number of laws, and above all, simple laws, suffice for a democracy. The interests of commerce are diverging and private. In a democracy, all interests converge towards a common centre, or rather they reunite and blend themselves with the interests of the state. Traders are necessary to a commercial state: citizens are wanted for a democracy. In fine, virtue is the basis of democracy, and up to this period at least, virtue has not taken for companions the attributes of commerce.” p. 34.

* Do you wish an example of the power of public manners in a government of this nature, open the history of the small Helvetic cantons. Switzerland gained and preserved her political institutions by the force of her manners; and when at the close of the last century, the Lords of Berne and Soleure, seduced by the intrigues of England, and their financial relations with that power, wished to meddle with France, Switzerland would have been lost, if her manners had not saved her; and the smaller cantons, particularly the democrattick cantons, have preserved their virtues, their customs, and their laws. But is there in the civilized world another country, where the people know how to live on chesnuts and sour milk?

We cannot dwell on all the mistakes in the preceding extract, and they are so palpable that it is unnecessary. The author throughout his work, exhibits the greatest contempt for the statesmen who founded our institutions. The plan of a general migration into the interior would have had this fine effect, that the powers of Europe might then have taken possession of the sea-coast, and fortifying the tenable positions, have had our population as much under their control, as we now have the savage. He thinks our legislators should have done violence to the manners, the prejudices, the feelings of the people, and driven them to create amid the forests, more perfect systems of government. He belongs to a school whose only resort is violence; this to be sure, for a time overturned every thing and established nothing; yet the experience of so much disaster has not altered his habits of thinking. Our ancestors, settled of course, on the sea-coast, where the climate is, contrary to his opinion, in general milder and healthier than in the interior; the soil is in many places poor, but interspersed with some fertile districts. As they increased in strength and numbers, they gradually advanced from the sea-shore, and with such rapid strides and such compound ratio of increase in late years, that our settlements now extend a thousand miles from the coast; and in districts, where at the period of the war in La Vendee, no civilized man had ever penetrated, there is now a prosperous population, more numerous even than the one destroyed by General Turreau and his coadjutors, in that barbarous contest.

The author admits, that increasing population is one of the surest tests of prosperity and of good institutions, but it is amusing to observe, how strenuously he labours to get out of the dilemma in which this admission would place him, by attributing the prodigious increase of the population of the United States to foreign emigration, and denying that it is due to "natural and local causes." He reminds us of the story of a certain childless Irish lady of rank, who went one day to the cottage of one of her tenants, where there were more children than panes of glass; and offering a reward to the poor woman, insisted on knowing the secret. But General Turreau undervaluing "natural and local" causes, accounts for the increase of our population by attributing one fourth of it, or two millions to foreign

emigration. This calculation is as well founded as most of his other opinions. We have never heard any estimation of the number of emigrants who have arrived in the United States during the last five and twenty years; we should say, however, that 400,000 was a very large estimate. Of the French either from France or the Colonies, very few remained. Besides their extreme nationality, so highly honourable to them, which is constantly drawing them towards their own country, there is no nation in Europe, which cannot endure a residence here better than the French. As teachers of their language and polite accomplishments, as cooks and milliners, a few as merchants, very rarely as manufacturers or as land holders, they may be found in all our cities; even few of these look on their stay as more than temporary, or consider this country as one that they have irrevocably adopted. They find the difference of language constantly irksome; there is besides too much enterprise, and too much solicitude, too much coldness and too much awkwardness of manner, too much personal liberty and independence, too much intensity in grave pursuits, and too little exterior gaiety, to permit them to blend their existence with ours. The revolution drove some of the adherents of royalty among us, who almost all returned as soon as their proscription was at an end; a recent change has driven others into exile here, who will probably return, like the preceding, whenever circumstances will permit.

The author asserts that life is quickly consumed in the United States, and that few individuals attain to old age, that he has walked for hours in the streets of Baltimore, Philadelphia and New-York, without meeting any aged persons; that the abandonment in our infant, and the profligacy of our youthful state, together with the train of horrible disorders almost unknown in Europe, are the cause of our perishing so prematurely. We might say in return, that we have walked for hours in France, without meeting any *young* men, which was probably owing to a horrible disorder that prevailed in that country, wholly unknown in this, called *conscription*. With respect to the cities he mentions, their growth has been so rapid, and they are principally young or middle aged people who form this sudden growth, that it is not to be wondered at, if the proportion of aged people should be very small; as to Baltimore, the

citizens have not had time to grow old since the foundation of the city. The bills of mortality however, so far as they have been kept with exactness, shew that life is more prolonged with us than in many countries of Europe ; and we believe the scale of annuities received there, has never been altered in regard to life here. This however, is not a new theory. We had once a discussion with a French author, who has published a work on this country ; he maintained this same doctrine, asserted that *no* man in it reached the age of eighty, and very rarely, that of sixty. One is sometimes so confounded by violent absurdity as to be almost unable to answer it. In the instance here alluded to, we cited, till other facts could be called to mind, that several of our own relations had reached the age of eighty ; but without denying this, which was only an exception to a general rule, he still asserted, that the people neither did, nor could live to old age, he had proved it and shewn the reasons in a work he had composed on the subject : as in another instance, the battle was fought, and any facts came too late ; as this is no doubt the case with the writer before us, we shall not pursue it farther.

It would hardly be worth while to refute the opinions of an author, respecting commerce, whose conceptions of the subject appear to have originated in considering the diminutive dealings of some sorry huckster ; since he lays down its main principle to consist in “ selling at a minimum of weights and measures.” He talks very properly about the Phenecians and Carthaginians, whose commercial operations were as similar to those of our times, as the triremes which carried the Greeks to the siege of Troy, were to the three deckers of modern navies. His plan of blending the whole hierarchy of commerce, and taking the most sordid trader as the representative of the profession, is only equalled, by considering the merchant who imports the productions of India, and the infamous outlaw who deals in the misery of Africans, as of one class ; which is like placing in the same rank, the generous patriot, who rushes to meet the invasion of a foreign enemy, with the sanguinary partizan, who in ferocious domestick strife, gluts his sword in the blood of his countrymen.

The vast increase of commerce in the world has changed the whole state of society, and produced the most obvious and per-

manent melioration in the condition of the bulk of mankind. Commerce itself is the mere instrument for promoting the prosperity of all other employments. The plough is put in motion by the ship ; and the accumulation of property, which is received from both, support and multiply all the intellectual pursuits of mankind. The activity of commerce, which is the result of the prosperity of agriculture and manufactures, is one of the surest supports of civil liberty and general refinement. Indeed, it is not a little suspicious to find the supporters of despotick government, under all the various forms it has assumed in France, constantly declaiming against commerce, and praising only agriculture. Is this system pursued, because military life is thus rendered the only employment that active minds can pursue, and because an agricultural population has ever been the most prolific and least resisting source to supply the ranks of military despotism ? Some visionary reasoners in this country, who have imbibed all the ideas of the French economists, have done some mischief by propagating their ideas, no doubt with honest intentions ; but as the liberty of commerce is the foundation of all other freedom and all excitement to production, either in agriculture or the arts ; we should watch with close attention the sinister views of these demagogues, who in declaiming against commerce, fill the same office they have always held in all countries, that of being what the Jackall is to the Lion, the precursors and purveyors of despots.

It is a very narrow and unphilosophical view that supposes the trader more selfish than the farmer ; the same general motives govern all mankind, in all employments ; the shop-keeper who sells a pound of sugar is not more avaricious than the farmer who sells a bushel of corn ; and as a general rule, he is perhaps less timid and niggardly in his operations, from a very natural cause, that taken in the same relative standing, his operations are quicker and more multiplied. Avarice is confined to no particular profession, and if a merchant sometimes rejoices in the high price of flour, the farmer receives very complacently the price of scarcity for his wheat. That the merchant escapes from contributions, which are all thrown on the rest of the community is not true in any country we are acquainted with, and least of all in this ; and if it ever takes place, can only happen under the most vicious governments, and imperfect administrations. That the greater part of mer-

cantile fortunes are at once the cause and effect of publick misery, is an assertion too extravagantly foolish to need refutation.

The prodigious increase of commercial interchange between nations in modern times, has had among many other beneficial tendencies, that of raising the character of merchants in the scale of society ; and this has generally been in proportion to the degree of intelligence and liberty, existing in the community where they resided. When commerce was throughout the world, what General Turreau wishes it should now become in the United States, the mere bartering of surplus commodities between neighbours ; mankind had few wants beyond that of animal nourishment, and as a small portion of labour would suffice for this, the great majority were condemned to ignorance and vassalage, either obliged to live indolently, or occupied in lawless violence at the caprice of a master. The operations of commerce being then insignificant, and its protection arbitrary, those who pursued it must have been low, cunning and mean. Its progress with the improvement of society, of which it was one of the most efficient causes, is too familiar to be followed here. In the small states of Italy, the merchants were converted into an aristocracy, in Holland they became enlightened and efficient patriots, and in England they gradually advanced in importance, till they were occasionally incorporated into the peerage. The traders of the dark ages were most commonly of that proscribed nation, which is still so degraded in many countries of Europe ; as their transactions were trifling, and their persons without protection, they lived in contempt and at the mercy of any feudal tyrant who chose to amerce them. What kind of resemblance is there between people of this description, and a merchant of our times, who receives all the advantages and refinements of education, who finds his profession respected, and often employs more individuals, and manages a greater revenue, than some independent princes ?

In the United States the mercantile profession stands higher than in any other country, even than in England. Indeed, here no profession is considered a disqualification for any publick employment ; the prejudices which still exist in Europe against men who are actively engaged in the vari-

ous private employments of life, have here no existence. Notwithstanding the rude shocks which aristocratical pride received in France, by the revolutionary prostration of its hereditary pretensions to exclusive respect ; and the gradual diminution of the same feelings in England, from the diffusion of wealth, education, and the influence derived from them ; there is still a gradation in opinion respecting rank, founded on other considerations than either merit or virtue. This too, is felt by the individuals themselves, and so long as they feel that they are subordinate, there will exist a degree of inferiority. But in this country a man's profession is hardly ever considered, and excites no degrading prejudice against him. A merchant, like a lawyer, a planter or physician, if his circumstances or the qualities of his mind liberate him from a confined attention to his own particular pursuits, is a candidate for any employment, and the profession he may have adopted is never considered. It is obvious that the tone of character must be higher under these circumstances, than in those countries, where the jealousy and pretensions of a privileged class lead them to cast a shade of ridicule or contempt on all those professions which they consider beneath them ; and which really are so, while those who profess them conform to this scale of appreciation.

The merchant in the United States has a country ; he is not the mere burgher of a privileged city, whose whole views are centered in commerce, who is never to take a part or even discuss any political concerns, and who educates his children merely to replace him in the counting-house. He is here a landholder, his property is connected with the permanent interior improvement of his country, and he is often called upon to take a share in political life. His interests therefore, are those of his nation, and though he may sometimes view them in an exaggerated point of view ; he is only liable to the same impulse, which may lead a cultivator to take a false estimate of his particular interests, and the measures that will promote them : a wise government listens to the reasoning of both, and is influenced by the clamours of neither ; but pursues with steadiness the general good, which may often be discovered from examining and comparing the partial statements of different classes of the community.

Nothing can be more false or more mischievous than to represent the United States as exclusively a commercial nation ; to place her in the scale of the Hanse Towns, or the provinces of Holland. They are at once an agricultural, a commercial and a manufacturing nation. The present writer, and others with the same views, throw out this assertion to create a senseless jealousy and hatred of an interest which they say preponderates over others, the importance of which is intimately felt by those who are engaged in them. Events in Europe threw into our hands, soon after our present government went into action, an immense share of lucrative foreign trade. This was wisely made use of while it lasted, and after all the deductions, which the spoliations of European powers took from it, there still remained a great addition to our disposable wealth, which has principally served to develope the internal resources of the country ; to improve its agriculture, to form roads, bridges and canals, to make the interior accessible to markets for its produce, and to afford the highest price for that produce. Much of this adventitious trade will pass out of our hands. Superior enterprise, greater celerity, and at least equal sagacity will always give us an adequate portion of it. In the mean time the coasting trade, the exchange of domestick products, has grown to be an object of the greatest importance, and as this increases annually, the time is not remote when it will eclipse the splendour of foreign trade. If men who cannot be convinced by argument, would only submit to experience, there would be no misconceptions on this subject. Experience has shewn invariably and incontrovertibly in the United States at least, that agriculture and manufactures have flourished as commerce has prospered ; in the absence of restriction their interests are advantageously blended and mutually promoted ; and whenever commerce has been interrupted for foreign or domestick jealousy, the reward of labour in every other branch has been diminished.

If commerce, as General Turreau observes, is opposed to all interference of government, it can only be odious to arbitrary power ; for a wise administration will always allow it all the protection and freedom it requires. How much more fortunate would it have been for France, if Napoleon had listened to the remonstrances of the merchants, for even in France

they remonstrated against his measures for the destruction of commerce ; to say nothing of justice or humanity, how superior in sagacity, in policy, in the science of political economy, were the opinions of those merchants, to those of the insolent, bigoted, and violent authors of that ruinous system. With respect to their publick spirit, they may in a free country, vie with any other class ; they may be sometimes led away into unreasonable apprehension or expectation from any particular measure for a short time, but under an intelligent administration, they will never be long in opposition. They bear their share of the publick burthens with commonly less grumbling than other classes ; and where their rights are not trampled upon, often afford prompt and useful aid in times of distress. As to that species of voluntary taxation for the foundation and support of beneficent and learned institutions, which is one of the strongest tests of intelligence and publick spirit in a free country, they are seldom found deficient in contributing their proportion. Look at the Hospitals, the Colleges and other establishments of these classes in Holland, England and the United States, and after ascertaining what portion of them is due to the generosity of mercantile men, decide whether this body is wanting in liberality or intelligence.

We shall next take some of his remarks relating to the affair of the Chesapeake frigate.

“But was it probable that France and England would suffer this parasitical power to enjoy gratuitously all the advantages which this usurped and contraband commerce procured for it ? Could the federal government believe, that the shame of the humiliations to which it had been accustomed, sufficed to expiate the rapine of its traders ? That Great-Britain, above all, who makes her political existence, depend on that of her commerce, would voluntarily share the benefit with the inhabitants of her ancient colonies, whom she still considers as rebels ?

“If other recollections have rendered France more generous or more indulgent, has the government of the United States treated it better than England ? and has it not on the contrary sought to propitiate this latter at the expense of her rival ? Is it not against the interests of France principally that the commission trade has employed its most shame-

ful subterfuges, which proves equally its baseness and cupidity, such as false papers, the disguising of merchandize and its destination, the prostitution of oaths before the tribunals, and above all, the substitution of foreign colours to that of a flag which they no longer dared to show ?

“ We do not fear that these assertions can be disproved, because they can be proved if necessary, by the official journals of the times, by the archives of Congress, and the records of the tribunals of commerce in France and in England.

“ However it may be, the English government, wishing to put an end to the usurpations of the fraudulent commerce of the Americans, on the national commerce of Great Britain, and manifest its high contempt for the starred* flag, suspended by its prohibitive acts, the activity of neutral commerce ; despised openly the Independence of the United States, and attacked without appearance of motive, nor even any pretext, their ships of war at gun shot distance from their coast, and in the waters of their municipal jurisdiction.”

The author goes on to narrate the particulars of that disgraceful occurrence. We have selected this extract for the purpose of giving the secret history of a memorable event, which will be perpetuated in our annals, and which is here, as indeed it often has before, been attributed to a deep and deliberate design of the British Cabinet. It is however, merely to gratify curiosity, that we give this relation, derived from a source which leaves us no doubt of its correctness ; and not to influence opinion in respect to that transaction, which afterwards grew into a most confused and portentous matter of negotiation : an affair the most insignificant in its origin, may by the subsequent conduct of the parties, be made to attain the most serious political bearings. This event became a cause of war ; the indiscretion and despicable vanity of an individual, may sometimes involve nations in all the calamities of protracted hostility. It is said that Spain once went to war because one of her Ambassadors was received by a Secretary of State

* “ The flag of the United States is ornamented with stars ; the number of these stars is determined by the number of particular States. It is not yet certain whether they are fixed stars.”

in boots. We have heard the following account of this business. A young man of noble family, commanded a ship off the Chesapeake ; being at Norfolk, some of his men ran away ; with an excess of insolence and rashness, he took measures to recover them in the port of a foreign country, which would not have been endured even in a port of his own. He and his attendants were in consequence insulted and rather scurvily treated by the populace. In great dudgeon he sailed to Halifax, to complain to the Admiral that " he had not been treated with respect." The Admiral having regard to an expected family connexion, instead of a reprimand for his folly, sympathized with his feelings, and sent off a ship with orders to stop the Chesapeake and search her for deserters. The commanding officer on that station, in executing these orders, which excited his astonishment, might have employed a 74, and the transaction would then have been in a degree less odious, as the superiority of force would have precluded any contest and loss of lives. Out of personal ill will however to the officer who brought the orders, he despatched him on this service, in a ship whose disparity with the Chesapeake was not so great as to prevent a combat. The officer thus obliged to attack the American frigate, was afterwards deprived of employ, though innocent, for having been engaged in this obnoxious affair ; while the Admiral who ordered it, having powerful family connexions, was promoted to a better station. Such are the justice and generosity of governments.

The prophetick spirit of the author may be appreciated by his prediction, that the repeal of the embargo would give " the last blow to the government of the Union," and that in consequence the government had " lost without resource its consideration, within as well as without, and has no longer a shade of authority." His political wisdom may be inferred from his admiration of that destructive, debasing system ; and his fitness to appreciate the operations of a free government, from his inexpressible regret and indignation, that the organs of publick sentiment, who in their legislative capacity repealed that measure, did not meet on the very theatre of their exertions with a violent death. His remarks on the American journalists, we publish out of pure magnanimity, they are contained in a note to the passage which alludes to the embargo.

"The degradation of political power is so perceptible in the United States, that the parties always take the tone and attitude of factions; which is in our opinion the least equivocal proof of the bad character of the government, and the weakness of its members. The last session of the tenth Congress (which made and repealed the law of the Embargo,) has placed in evidence the danger which the constitution must encounter each time that the duty and opinion of its administrators come in opposition with the thoughtless will of the people; whenever the former shall endeavour to draw back the others to a dependance on the laws, and to defend from that want of foresight, which in every country is the characteristick trait of the people. The last Congress, (the second session of the tenth) where the numerical minority became in fact, the majority; where all the measures of some factious men;* that Congress, in which the voice of a particular state dictated a

* "The American journalists who are always and of necessity party men, who, for the most part, read only to censure, and censure with acrimony every thing that comes from a foreign pen, will not fail to make applications here, and to throw all the odium on the text, in order to justify their commentaries. We protest in advance against all personal allusion. We do not know how to flatter, but we do not wish to offend. *Quid verum atque decens curo et rogo.* We esteem that political writer, who speaks what he believes to be the truth on all subjects. We despise supremely the despicable journalist (*folliculaire*) who is ignorant of the respect due to the publick functionary, as well as to the man in private life. For if there can exist no real civil and political liberty without the freedom of the press, it must also be allowed that the license and the excess of some periodical writers are grievous abuses in every political society; above all, in a young nation where the institutions are still vacillating, and the powers without equilibrium. After this profession of faith, and the severe tone which reigns in this work, every honest, intelligent and impartial reader, can pronounce on the intentions and on the independence of the opinions of the author. We know however, that the Americans are not fond of hearing the truth about their country, their institutions and their government; and we have not forgotten what was the fate of certain letters written to Mr. Adams, by one of the most celebrated writers of the last century, by Mably, the worthy emûlator of Montesquieu, who had dared to indicate some incorrections in the constitutional system of several states of the Union. The following paragraph is from the *Mercure de France*, for January, 1785, No. 11."

"The last work of the Abbe de Mably, on the constitutions of the United States of America, has made the Americans indignant against that estimable writer. In many states he has been hung in effigy, as the enemy of liberty and toleration, and his book has been dragged through the mud.

general law, has given the last blow to the government of the Union. That government has lost without resource its consideration within, as well as without, and has no longer a shade of authority.

"The pusillanimous men are very guilty in the eyes of reason and policy, who suffered the federal power and that of the States, to be insulted with impunity. At Rome, a tribune, a senator, a consul, who dared make an appeal to the people against the national authority, was on the spot, delivered over to the vengeance of the laws; and the forum, the witness of his crime, was also of his death. In Rome ——— but it is a question of the United States."

There is such a striking coincidence between the remarks of General Turreau, and those of M. De Beaujour in a work, which was reviewed in a former number, on the subject of bankruptcy, that it is natural to presume the Minister and the Consul must have communicated their ideas to each other. The former is determined not to be outdone by the latter in extravagance, and this sentence in the following extract, needs no comment. "What is most astonishing, and which proves to what a degree publick morality is violated with impunity in the United States, is that a man who has obtained on his own oath an act of insolvency, is only the more sought for by people of business, and acquires such a degree of confidence for his future transactions, that he obtains a fortune rapidly.

"Sometimes even it (the Federal government) has been seen in contempt of its dignity and its political conscience to seek and acquire a shameful popularity, in tolerating the emission of scandalous laws and accustoming opinion, already guilty, to save from infamy fraudulent debtors.

"It has been observed to me, that it was the particular legislation of separate states that should be reproached with the law which protects bankrupts so effectually. I know nothing about it; and I am not curious to unravel that maze

This treatment which may appear more shameful to those who have inflicted it, than to him who was the object of it, proves at least, that the Americans do not like to receive advice."

"We do not expect the same honour for our person, nor for our pages; but we should doubtless felicitate ourselves, if the popular inquisitors, who are in power in the United States, would give towards us a new proof of their discernment and moderation."

of laws, which rule jointly and separately all the branches of the American Union. But I have found in the federal constitutional code, in the eighth section of the first article, the following paragraph.

“Congress shall have power to establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcy, throughout the United States.’ The approximation or rather this species of amalgamation of the words *naturalization* and *bankruptcy* may seem rather singular. It appears that it was the intention of the legislator to assure a special protection to every adventurer, of whom the people of Europe might choose to purge their territory.

“Whatever may have been the authority that made this law, it is an indelible monument of perversity : I appeal to the judgment of honest and enlightened men of every country, to know which is most corrupt, the legislator who proposes such a law, or the people who approve it ; and to pronounce what can be the state of morals among such a people. What is most astonishing, and which proves to what a degree publick morality is violated with impunity in the United States, is that a man who has obtained on his own oath an act of insolvency, is only the more sought for by people of business, and acquires such a degree of confidence for his future transactions, that he attains a fortune rapidly. I have been assured also, that in England they suffer faithless debtors to save themselves from the severity of the law. It is less surprising then, that the American legislators should be anxious to go further than the authors of the British code ; and when the law is limited in England to the toleration of bankrupts, a regulation should be found in the United States which protects them.”

We have made this last extract, to have an opportunity of assenting to one of the author’s opinions. He has more than once expressed a very just censure on the impolicy of our naturalization laws. This is a subject which is becoming every day of more urgent importance, and the necessity of a revision of our laws on this point more obviously expedient. No one can wish to prevent strangers from coming among us to settle, though the author carries his ideas to that extent. We have room enough for almost every description of emigrants, and ready employment. A small accession of them interspersed

among our citizens is useful in many respects—they bring with them, some valuable knowledge and experience, and often introduce improvements; they serve also, to counteract that illiberal, overbearing, paltry vanity, which makes the inhabitants of small communities very apt to suppose themselves superiour to all the rest of the world; and prone to discourage all amelioration and enlargement of policy. Strangers, in this respect, have in some degree the effect which a great metropolis has upon society, and compel vulgar, village mediocrity to submit to the toleration of improvement. Let us then receive them with hospitality, offer them all the facilities of exercising their professions, of acquiring property by their industry, of investing and securing it; but not employ them to legislate for, or govern us. Let their children acquire from their birth, the birthrights of Americans, but do not let us give away our own, like a mess of pottage, to the first foreigner that solicits it. We can conceive that a man condemned to misfortune, by the force of circumstances in Europe, should gradually conceive an attachment for an asylum, where he may retrieve his condition and enjoy repose and prosperity; yet we cannot imagine for a moment, how a man can ever be indifferent to the country, any more than to the parents, that gave him existence; and if he preserves either resentment or partiality towards it, how can he be safely entrusted with power in the land of his adoption, if its relations with the one he has left ever become a subject of discussion? In according protection to the peaceable exercise of a profession, to the acquisition of property, and the tenure of real estate, we do more than any other nation ever does indiscriminately; and as we do not wish to import legislators, all emigrants who are not satisfied with these essential privileges, it will be best to keep at a distance.

The most enormous offence of this work, is contained in the following extract.

“But the capital vice of the American institutions is in their incoherence. The authors of the confederation, in adopting for the government of the Union the principle of the renewal of authority as a fundamental and common disposition, have thought proper to except the judiciary order, and to guarantee the immovability of the judges of the Supreme Court to assure their independence.

“What has resulted from this derogation of the constitutional principle? That the judicial authority, has become in fact, the first federal authority; and is so in publick opinion as well as by law.”

He adds further reflections in the same style. It is precisely this principle of our judiciary, which the author thinks such a deformity, that is the most beautiful feature in our political system. It is the provision which without containing the seeds of danger in itself, or the possibility of usurpation, is the great safeguard of our liberty, the only permanent basis it possesses. It is this which gives our liberty one security that is not possessed in England. There, an act of Parliament is paramount, and the nation have no immediate check against the unjust or tyrannical conduct of the party in power. Here, if a majority of Congress should ever in a moment of delusion, of passion or corruption, infringe by their acts the fundamental rights of the people; the sacred Areopagus of the nation will point out the infraction. They will give the government and the people an opportunity to reflect, before they destroy the constitution: yet they can only warn; if the administration choose to violate the principles of the constitution and the citizens support them in it, the judiciary can do no more; their power is only a political conscience which can point out the deviation, but must yield to the will of the nation. A foreigner, who has been accustomed to notorious and avowed venality of Judges, cannot be persuaded of the advantage attending this principle of making the Judges the guardians of the Constitution. He who has seen them the creatures and dependents of government, can form no conception of the purity and dignity of their character under a different system. A case occurred with some foreign minister, we think it was probably General Turreau, that a vessel of his nation was the subject of a process in the national Court. He wished to arrest the progress of the affair, and applied to the administration to release the vessel and stop the proceedings; when told it was out of their power, he was overwhelmed with astonishment, and quite incredulous as to their assertion: his only consolation perhaps was, that if a nation existed, where the progress of justice could not be impeded by the government, that such a nation must speedily perish.

What danger can be apprehended from these judges? they have no army at their disposal; they have no patronage, they are not candidates for political promotion; they are liable to impeachment for misconduct; their proceedings are publick. They are necessarily elevated above the foul atmosphere of party; and their only ambition must be to receive the respect of the nation, from a performance of their high duties with stern integrity and impartiality. So long as the independence of the judges is maintained, so long our freedom will be secure. So long as the people are possessed of sufficient intelligence to protect these only disinterested, permanent guardians of their rights, however they may be divided into parties or inflamed by the violence of factions, they may still be safe from oppression. Whenever any set of men shall entertain designs against the constitution, either to overwhelm it in the anarchy of simple democracy or to found on its ruins a usurpation of monarchical power, they will commence their operations, by open or insidious attacks to weaken and overthrow the judiciary.

We select another extract to give an additional specimen of the author's representation of our character.

"In fact, it is as much by the manners of a people as by the wisdom of their legislators, that useful reforms may be made without a political convulsion. When the people only differ about the means of effecting the publick good; when the love of country is the source of that divergence and salutary inquietude that agitates the citizens; in a word, when the diversity of opinion does not alter their principles, and that they are blended with the interests of the state, it is possible, perhaps easy, to temper the pride of individual will, and to rally it to a common centre of wants and advantages. But there, where a divergence of opinion rises from an impure source; where avarice has insulated every individual, degraded every soul, depraved every heart; there, where a private and exclusive interest has transformed the citizens into brokers, lawyers, shopkeepers and journalists; there, where men are valued only in proportion to their monied weight; there, where traders may engross the public functions as they do merchandize, where merit and talents dread the homage and choice of the peo-

ple;* there, where the parties known under the names of democrattick and federalist, only struggle to usurp power or calumniate those who are clothed with it, and invoke the support of the constitution, but to violate it, and to degrade the authorities which are derived from it.

“There, where all the relations of language, of manners, of habits, of passions, and of prejudices, necessarily render the confederation submissive to the directions of a foreign power, of a power whose recollections, whose pride, perhaps legitimate, whose commercial system, and even the analogy of political system, render her essentially the enemy of the states of the Union; there in fine where England still exercises in fact, all the rights of supremacy, where she has been able to exact and obtain with impunity the sacrifice of national honour as a tribute of expiation; there where ———, but I stop: to wish to amend such a system by partial reforms, and prevent the subversion of the state by a change of manners or institutions, is to embrace the chimera of the Alchymists, or that of perpetual motion.” p. 135.

“This is a circumstance whimsical enough and peculiar to the United States. The *coryphees* of the two parties who sit in Congress, and whose discussions often degenerate into disputes and personal quarrels, attach themselves principally to revile the authority and cast a ridicule over the acts of government, which always emanate from the dominant party. They do not cease to invoke reciprocally in their political debates the observance of the constitution, and draw even from its text consequences often very just and always contradictory. Meet the question then frankly; agree that your constitution is defective; and work in concert to correct your system if there be still time; for it must be agreed that all modification of the constitutional principle, (the sovereignty of the people) may give rise to seditious movements, occasion the affranchisement of particular states, and of course the rupture of the federal chain. It will be so much more difficult to avoid it, as all the measures of reform, to be salutary, must bear at once upon

* *Virtus, repulsæ nescia sordidæ,
Intaminatis fulget honoribus;
Nec sumit aut ponit secures
Arbitrio popularis auræ. Hor. c. 2. b. 3.*

manners and institutions, and that the people are still more attached to their habits than to their laws. We will readily agree, that however vicious the constitution may be, it is not so in all its parts. It might suit with some slight changes an agricultural people, and who should be only agricultural. But how persuade the Americans to break the yoke of commerce? It is doubtful, even in the present state of their manners, if they could support a democrattick regimen, unless they were constrained and prepared for it by a temporary and extremely strong government, and against which it would perhaps be necessary to have guarantees to prevent usurpation. In serious times, and where the safety of the state might be compromised, the authority of the executive is extended to give more action to the government, and an extra constitutional power is instituted, and always without a limit. The case in which we may have recourse to such extraordinary measures ought to be foreseen by the constitution. The dictatorship more than once saved the Roman republick. In England, they suspend the action of the law of *habeas corpus*," &c.

We took up this work with a resolution to make no allusion to the character of its author: but is it possible to find our country thus calumniated before the world, by a foreign minister who resided here eight years, without recalling to its recollection who this minister was, that it may be better able to appreciate his testimony? General Turreau was sent to the United States, in the early stages of the late memorable usurpation in France, when it was expedient to get rid of a few personages of his stamp. He was kept here when want of skill was of little importance to a government, whose whole diplomattick intercourse with other nations, was carried on in the style of a coarse and insolent dictating. A Colonel of gens d'armes was as good as any other agent. The grotesque appearance of this ambassador would have been ludicrous, if the associations he excited had not have inspired horror. Combining all that was ferocious and vulgar in the guard-house and the Jacobin Club, the first impression was laughter, the second disgust. With whiskers more formidable than any sapper of the Imperial guard, this most sanguinary partizan in the Vendean war was decorated with rouge, and this trifling circumstance connected with the part he had played in that war, produces a shuddering

sensation almost indescribable. The scandalous domestick scenes that occurred soon after his arrival, while they reflected disgrace on a government which could employ such agents, shewed how reckless it was of all the feelings of decorum and morality. The exile of an obnoxious individual, was the purpose answered ; and if he was only arrogant and violent, all his duties were fulfilled. There are many passages in this work which prove how deficient he was in skill, of which one may be cited as an example. He talks loudly of English injustice and violations of the laws of nations, and the atrocious outrages they committed in the cases of the Chesapeake frigate and Copenhagen. These are bad enough, we all know ; yet, were not the last things that a skilful agent of Napoleon would have mentioned, the laws of nations, or the faith of treaties ? if these things should have been mentioned to him, would he not have coughed, talked about the weather, or any other subject that could have diverted the conversation ? General Turreau uses the most opprobrious terms in speaking of the administration, he talks of their imbecility, their perfidy, &c. and from the manner in which he speaks of the trade of St. Domingo and the expedition of Miranda, it is obvious what kind of style he must have used in his communications. Indeed, there is nothing that has raised a deeper blush of national feeling, than the endurance of this Ambassador by our government ; and this too, when the unskilful insolence of a contemporary foreign Envoy was promptly resented. We trust that the time has passed when any considerations of policy, which must be erroneous ones, will ever tolerate any want of respect in the conduct of diplomattick agents at Washington.

We shall take one more extract which forms the conclusion of the book.

“ Americans, nature has been so liberal towards you, that you may renounce advantages which can only be precarious, since they do not enter into her views, and that they lead you from your real destination. Be agriculturalists. If you become manufacturers let it be only for your wants : stop there. Above all no foreign commerce, except in your ports. Open them to all trading people ; and never leave them. Employ neither ambassadors nor resident ministers in the courts of Eu-

rope ; and do not suffer any among yourselves. Receive only consular agents, and accord them the jurisdiction and privileges that they possess elsewhere.

“ Amend your constitution ; do not grant naturalization so easily ; your population will grow less rapidly, but it will be more healthy ; reform and simplify your jurisprudence.

“ Renounce conquests even in opinion ; you are already too extensive. Prepare yourselves for an inevitable separation, that it may take place without commotion. Be in fine, what you ought to be, an insulated people, enjoying the benefits of nature under a liberal constitution, you will be happy and history will not speak of you.”

If it had not have been for the pretty pastoral termination of this passage, the whole of it might have been comprised in one sentence ; be Chinese. To attain this blessing of pure democracy, we are to wave all the advantages of our situation ; we are to abandon all the resources which are derived from the accumulation of wealth, for the diffusion of learning, of civilization and refinement ; we are to renounce the ocean, all communication with the rest of the world, and all desire of fame, “ that history may not speak of us ;” we are to eat black broth, pass our time in naked gymnastick exercises, in oppressing, and from time to time murdering Helots ; in one word, we are to give up all the benefits which in the progress of the last three centuries, have accrued to the world, and to move in a retrograde step as fast as possible, to a state of society such as it was, when it first emerged from barbarism—Enough of this ; the destiny of the United States is and must be different ; our motto is, *Forward*.

A narrative of the events which have taken place in France from the landing of Napoleon Buonaparte, on the first of March, 1815, till the restoration of Louis XVIII, with an account of the present state of Society and publick opinion. By Helen Maria Williams, 12mo. pp. 247. Philadelphia. M. Thomas.

The world is almost as much tired of hearing of Buonaparte, as that Athenian was of Aristides, who wanted to vote for his ostracism, though not precisely for the same reason. It would

be too great a libel on mankind to suppose, that the general opinion respecting him could be doubtful ; though we are occasionally startled at hearing a sullen murmur of regret at his fall, emanating from some obscure corner, which puts us on our guard for a moment, till we have passed by safely. We have had books and anecdotes of him innumerable, and yet these involve so many contradictions and inconsistencies, that it is impossible to form a satisfactory idea of his whole character. One fact is certain, that, having it in his power to add more to the happiness of men, he has accumulated more calamities upon them, than any individual of modern times.

Among the publications on this subject, the work of Miss Williams, as might be supposed from her talent of writing, and advantage of long residence in Paris, is not the least interesting. It is in the form of letters addressed to a friend, and the first one contains an apology for her previous admiration of her hero. Perhaps she would have been more discreet in avoiding all allusion to herself ; since however she has not, we shall extract one paragraph from her justification for the amusement of our readers. They will recollect that Miss Williams is out of her *teens*, that she has, from no very recent period, been entitled to what the French call *un brevet de dame* ; and yet she gravely gives as a reason for liking Napoleon, that he was fond of Ossian !

“ Allow me to observe also, *en passant*, that I had been assured he was an enthusiastick admirer of Ossian ; and when I found that he united to a noble simplicity of character, and a generous disdain of applause, a veneration for Ossian, this circumstance filled up the measure of my admiration. I did not then know that Buonaparte valued Ossian only for his descriptions of battles, like the surgeon who praised Homer only for his skill in anatomy.”

We shall commence our extracts from this work, with the author's account of the Duchess of Angouleme. This Princess is the soul of the ultra royalists, the party that is now paramount in France. It is to be feared that her notions of both government and religion are neither of them suited to the intelligence and habits of the present day, and that the violence of this party may prepare a fatal reaction, whenever the foreign forces are withdrawn. She seems, however, at Bordeaux to

have conducted with promptitude and energy worthy of her rank, and worthy of her relation, the great Maria Teresa.

“The Duchess of Angouleme had not been spared by the Buonapartists, amidst the censures heaped upon her family. One of the heaviest charges brought against her, was the habitual melancholy of her disposition ; she was found guilty of having no French gaiety in her character. The Parisians remembered not that this princess, at an age when the heart is already susceptible of deep, and lasting impressions, had seen her whole family perish, and had herself been led from the gloomy tower of her prison, into an exile which had lasted twenty years ; that on returning to the palace of her fathers, it was natural that some melancholy reflections should darken for her the triumphal pomp, and mingle themselves with the exultation of her joy. But sadness was not the sole offence of the Duchess of Angouleme ; her extreme piety was declared to be fitter for a monastery than a court ; and in the caricatures of the royal family which filled the print-shops after their departure, she was always placed on her knees before a prie-dieu, as if incapable of all other occupations. But no less was the confusion of her adversaries, than the triumph of her adherents, when it was announced in Paris, that this princess, with that energy which, in a superiour mind, is called forth by extraordinary situations, had risen from her knees, and invoking in her heart the aid of heaven, had mounted on horseback, rid every day through the ranks, and displayed a courage worthy of heroick times. When Buonaparte sent a considerable detachment to march against her, she ordered a general to conduct her to the Chateau de la Trompette. The general hesitated, assuring her that she would be in danger. ‘I do not ask you, sir,’ said she, ‘if there would be danger, I only order you to conduct me.’ She rode up to a circle of officers on the esplanade, whom she harangued, exhorting them to fidelity, and the renewal of their oaths of allegiance in presence of the enemy. Observing their coldness, and hesitation, she exclaimed, ‘I see your fears, you are cowards ; I absolve you from your oaths already taken !’ and turning her horse, she left them, and immediately embarked on board an English frigate. The inhabitants of Bordeaux followed her to the sea shore, with fond enthusiasm, with lamentations, and tears. Every one wished to possess something that had

belonged to her, something for 'thoughts and remembrances;' something that might be guarded with the same devotion as the votive offering of a saint, or the relick of a martyr. She gave her shawl, her gloves, the feathers of her hat, which were cut into shreds, and distributed among her followers."

The very name of Cossack was a source of terrour to the people of France; the troops under this general name were as various in their character, as distinct in their tribes. Some of them were as regular and well disciplined as any other cavalry; others were extremely lawless and irregular, and, like the elephants employed in the armies of the East, were sometimes equally mischievous to friends and foes. Many enormities were charged to the account of the Cossacks, of which they were innocent. The author narrates an instance of this kind, which is followed by an anecdote of Kosciusko, one of the most interesting that can be found among all the events of that period. This illustrious Pole will rank in history as one of the finest characters of this eventful age; and it is impossible, not to feel a strong sympathy for him, though we can feel but little for the wretched government, which it was his object to restore. His patriotism was pure, but the situation of Poland was hopeless and irretrievable. He was deficient in political sagacity either in regard to men or measures; but he united to a modesty which may be called excessive, a taste for and some proficiency in the fine arts, a love of liberty almost romantick, great military talents, heroick courage, incorruptible integrity, and striking simplicity of manners.

"The Corps Franks were organised bands of volunteers, hired by some chief, commissioned by the police. They had been instituted in the last campaign to protect the rural communes of the departments round Paris from pillage by the scattered Russian Cossacks. The daily papers were filled with doleful accounts of depredation and violence committed by these northern barbarians. All the horrors of war were poured on the inhabitants, and files of municipal certificates were published, with the intention of rousing the citizens of Paris to resistance, lest such also should be their fate.

"This part of the business was ill-managed, for it was proved that no Russian Cossacks had entered these departments; and that all these horrors had been committed by the volunteers

of the Corps Franks, or, as they were called, the Cossacks of the Fauxbourgs St. Antoine and St. Marceau, who had assumed the costume of the Russian Cossacks. In a village on the Marne, near Meaux, in the direction of which the allied armies were expected, a Russian general, Rusky Musky, or by some such name was he called, had given orders to his little advanced army of Cossacks to levy contributions, and to take with them the furniture of the houses in which he had fixed his quarters. Intelligence of this was conveyed to the proprietor of a villa, and who was a colonel stationed with his regiment of regular troops at Meaux. He advanced privately to reconnoitre the enemy; he admired the dexterity with which he saw his property packed up and placed on Russian conveyances. He brought up his regiment, surrounded his house, and made General Rusky Musky and all his troops prisoners of war. Soon after, each man of this little Russian army, was strung up by the neck on the trees which formed the avenue leading to his house. The general was convicted of being the upholsterer in the Fauxbourg St. Antoine, who had furnished the house the preceding year, and his army was composed of the workmen of that quarter of Paris.

“Such were part of the measures then taken by Buonaparte’s police, to excite the country and Paris to useless resistance against the invading armies. The Cossacks of the north were less dreaded than the Cossacks of Paris. The former, though authorized plunderers, were often found capable of lenient measures, and sometimes even of sentiment, a proof of which took place in the environs of Fontainebleau, with which I shall close this rambling letter.

“A Polish regiment, forming part of the advanced guard of the Russian army, after expelling the French from Troyes, marched upon Fontainebleau. The troops were foraging in a neighbouring village, and were about to commit disorders, which would have caused considerable loss to the proprietors, without benefit to themselves; such as piercing the banks, or forcing the sluices of some fish ponds. While they were thus employed, and their officers looking on, they were astonished to hear the word of command bidding them to cease, pronounced in their own language, by a person in the dress of the upper class of peasants. They ceased

their attempts at further spoliation, and drew near the stranger. He represented to the troops the useless mischief they were about to commit, and ordered them to withdraw. The officers coming up, were lectured in their turn; and heard with the same astonishment the laws of predatory warfare explained to them. "When I had a command in the army, of which your regiment is a part, I punished very severely such acts as you seem to authorize by your presence; and it is not on those soldiers but on you that punishment would have fallen." To be thus tutored by a French farmer, in their own language, in such circumstances, and in such terms, was almost past endurance. They beheld the peasants at the same time taking off their hats, and surrounding the speaker, as if to protect him in case of violence; while the oldest among their own soldiers, anxiously gazing on the features of the stranger, were seized with a kind of involuntary trembling. Conjured more peremptorily, though respectfully, to disclose his quality and his name, the peasant, drawing his hand across his eyes to wipe off a starting tear, exclaimed, with a half stifled voice, 'I am Kosciusko!'

"The movement was electric. The soldiers threw down their arms, and falling prostrate on the ground, according to the custom of their country, covered their heads with sand. It was the prostration of the heart. On Kosciusko's return to his house in the neighborhood of this scene, he found a Russian military post established to protect it.

"The Emperor Alexander, having learnt from M. de la Harpe, that Kosciusko resided in the country, ordered for him a guard of honour, and the country around his dwelling escaped all plunder and contribution.

"Kosciusko had withdrawn some years since from the guilty world of Buonaparte to cultivate a little farm, rejecting every offer which was made him by Napoleon, who had learnt to appreciate his worth. Kosciusko knew him well. I called on him one day to bid him farewell, having read in the official paper of the morning his address to the Poles on the subject of recovering their freedom, being named to the command of the Polish army by Buonaparte. Kosciusko heard me with a smile at my credulity; but on my shewing him the address with his signature, he exclaimed, 'This is all a forgery; Buonaparte knew me too well to insult me with any offer

in this predatory expedition ; he has adopted this mode, which I can neither answer nor resent, and which he attempts to colour with the pretext of liberty. His notions and mine respecting Poland, are at as great a distance as our sentiments on every other subject."

Among the gigantick projects attributed to Buonaparte, was one respecting which the world have only had some vague hints, and which Miss Williams gives only a confused account of ; this was a change or reform in religion, which should give his character the additional influence and renown of a great prophet or reformer. A reformation of religion without infringing its vital doctrines, an adaptation of the Catholick faith to the present state of society, would certainly have been as practicable and as useful, as the attempt of the present government to recur to the ancient customs and abuses, which having been laid open in all their deformity by the joint efforts of wit and reason for fifty years, and discontinued and abandoned for half that period, can never be renewed, unless society is first degraded to that ignorance and barbarism in which they originated. We are glad to insert the anecdote respecting the funeral of a protestant, as some offset for the occurrences at the funeral of Mademoiselle Rancour, of which something was said in a former number ; but the persecution of the protestants in the South, why was it suffered, or why was it not avenged ? —If the ultra royalists had nothing to fear but the protestants of France, they perhaps might exterminate them with impunity ; but their conduct forms part of a system which the present state of the world will not endure : and future calamities and horrors will bring conviction to those, on whom the experience of the past has been lavished in vain.

"It has been said by the moralists, 'never be such a fool as to be a knave ;' but the policy of Napoleon soared far beyond the trite and vulgar maxims of moral conduct. His principles respecting government, and his own actions, whether publick or private, were regulated by no other views than those of his own immediate interests. He had chosen Machiavel for his guide, and applied the politicks, maxims, and practices of the Italian states, to our own enlightened times, and to France, which having subdued, he attempted to make his instrument of the subjection of Europe.

“His previous studies had led him to believe that not only the territory of France was his property, but its inhabitants also ; he spoke often, with the triumph of a wealthy prodigal, of his ability of spending twenty and thirty thousand men each month ; and made no more account of this sort of expenditure, than of the millions of gold and silver which he exacted and lavished. His most ardent ambition was that of living in history, provided that it was not such a writer as Tacitus who should convey his name to posterity, and for whom he affected the most profound contempt. In a discussion with the historick class of the Institute, he asserted that Tacitus was the most partial, misinformed, and ill-advised of all historians ; and that he had libelled a model of wisdom among the Roman emperours, Tiberius, of whose policy in government he had not the sagacity to form a just opinion. The Institute was compelled to leave Tacitus to defend himself, and Tiberius to the honours of his new reputation.

“Buonaparte had signalized himself as a warrior, but he did not too highly deem of descending to posterity with military fame alone. He had observed that nothing of the most celebrated destroyers of mankind, called warriors, exists but their names ; while its great institutors are not merely held in remembrance, but continue to live in their disciples ;—all that remained of Alexander, of Cæsar, of Charles XII. was their names ; but the laws instituted more than four thousand years since by Moses, were yet obeyed throughout the world, by the numerous and disseminated posterity of his race ;—that Zoroaster and Mahomet had subdued, by their principles, a great portion of the earth, and that their names are still invoked with veneration by innumerable followers ; while the heroes of Greece and Rome fade on the memory ; that, in modern times, Luther and Calvin had given their names to the most enlightened portion of the people of Europe ; and that he also, Napoleon the Great, by seizing some favourable epocha for a new kind of warfare against all that he called superstition, might become the founder of some other system of faith, and assume the honours of a teacher or a prophet. Buonaparte had not only meditated on this subject, but had made reformation the secret order of the day, in a committee of his council of state. Without having plunged deeply into religious con-

troversy, or having probably carried his studies beyond the lucubrations of modern infidelity, he had the sagacity to discern that the prevalent religion of his empire held little relation with the primitive doctrines of Christianity, and that the state of knowledge in France was such that reformation would be welcomed. Orders were given to the literary police to permit the publication of all works against popery ; and coercive measures were in meditation against the person of the Pope, who had resisted his anti-canonical measures respecting the institution of bishops. This was a power which interfered too much with his own, and he wished to annex the title of Head of the Church to that of Emperour of the French.

“Buonaparte had distinguished himself at all times for his principles of toleration, which benefited only the dissenters from the Catholick church. These were favored ; while the episcopal chiefs of the church avoided any open hostilities, only by becoming the instruments of his edicts of conscription, or flatterers of his power. Their charges, or *mandemens*, to the clergy and people of their dioceses, were filled with scriptural allusions to Cyrus ; and one bishop so far forgot his allegiance to the Pope, as to name Buonaparte the representative of God on earth. The clergy of inferiour rank, whose salaries were by no means adequate to their services, or who had clearer views of Buonaparte’s ultimate designs, were unwilling to compliment away their faith, and made scriptural allusions, in their turn, in answer to the *mandemens* of their bishops.

“History teaches us that arbitrary power and the sword are not always unfitted to promote a reform of ancient errors. Mahomet proposed the great doctrine of the Unity of the Divine Being, and purified the Christian, and what yet remained of the heathen world, of its polytheistick and idolatrous abuses ; and Henry VIII. shook off with violence the chains of the papal government. Of these two creeds, a warlike nation of the east, the Mahometan Wechabites, appear to have undertaken a further reform. The papal superstition would not, perhaps, have survived Buonaparte’s examination. He had found too many points of opposition in the tenets of this church to fashion it to his rule of government, and bring it within the pale of his system of unity. He had, indeed, observed in Egypt the policy of ancient Rome in adopting

the religion of the conquered country. 'Glory to Allah!' says he to the chief priests of Cairo. 'There is no other God, but God; Mahomet is his prophet, and I am his friend. The divine Koran is the delight of my soul, and the object of my meditation.' A discussion which he held with those eastern doctors led to some doubts respecting the strength of faith in their proselyte. Buonaparte would not admit that the magnetical needle, the invention of gunpowder, the art of printing, or the Newtonian system of the universe, were to be found in the Koran. But whatever might be the doctrines which Buonaparte would have instituted, and for the belief of which all latitude would have been given, the discipline of his church would no doubt have been military. He had already rendered the instruction at the Lyceums, and even private schools, as soldier-like as the nature of the lessons permitted, and every movement was ordered by beat of drum. A right reverend bench of generals, well organized staffs of deans and vicars, and a handsomely drilled clergy, with their acolytes, would, in his estimation, have given energy to the church-militant. As a sedentary guard, or militia, they would have replaced the regular troops stationed in the interior, and with which he could have augmented his ranks for foreign service. The teachers of virtue might thus have become the quellers of sedition, and their eloquent discourses against immorality be accompanied, if necessary, by the stronger arguments of military persuasion. As his system had been that of fusion in his secular concerns, so he would have followed the same rule in his ecclesiastical administration, and this he would have called toleration. He had not been able, however, to bring the Pope, when in Paris, into union with the president of the Protestant church, M. Marron, whom he usually addressed at court by the title of 'Monsieur le Pape Protestant.' Pius VII. declared, with some pleasantry, that he had no hopes 'de tirer le *Maron* du feu.' But Napoleon effected what was no less difficult, that of engaging the Cardinal Archbishop of Paris, and the Protestant president, to join in the same religious ceremony, in the presence of the empress and part of the court. It was the celebration of the marriage of a Catholic and a Protestant person of the court; and the man being a Protestant, the Protestant president in right of the husband's

prerogative, took a lead in the ceremony, and was seated in the place of honour, at the right hand of the empress, at the nuptial banquet, and the cardinal was placed on the left.

“It is soothing to observe that toleration in France is not confined to courts, much less did it belong exclusively to his reign, who, in his complete indifference for all religion, was a Mussulman at Cairo, and a Catholick at Paris. Louis XVIII. while he adheres with steadfast attachment to that religion in which he so long found the solace of his misfortunes, and of which the consolations blunt the thorns that surround his diadem, Louis XVIII. has never violated the sacred principle of toleration. In testimony of the truth of this assertion, I shall mention the circumstances which took place last winter, at an interment some leagues distant from Paris, and at which the president of the Protestant church was invited to officiate. The defunct was a titled English Protestant. The bishop of the Diocese had ordered, that all due honours should be rendered to the piety and good works of the deceased. The funeral sermon was preached by the Protestant president, in the pulpit of a Catholick church, to a numerous Catholick auditory, the Catholick clergy attending the service. The corpse was laid in the tomb with mingled rites; the lighted tapers, and the Catholick dirge, the prayers of the Genevan church, and the tears of the mourning peasantry. You have heard of the object of this blended ceremonial. She was an English lady of some renown about the middle of the last century. Her misfortunes, and her errours, (for which the tears that were shed by the poor over her grave are a proof she had atoned,) have been recorded by the celebrated Junius, under the name of Miss Ann, or Naney Parsons.

“Buonaparte was well read in the history of the doubtful authority and genealogy of the papal doctrine; and a counsellor of state, whom he had entrusted with the project, told me that the emperor was persuaded, that the Doctors of the Gallican church would be flexible enough* to swell the num-

* The decrees which he enforced with the most unrelenting severity were those of the conscription. Strict obedience to this murderous mandate was enjoined in the pastoral letters of bishops to their dioceses. A certain archbishop enforced his argument in favour of this depopulating decree, by asserting that Jesus Christ had submitted himself to the conscription. It was thus that the Reverend Father in God translated, by the

ber of their four articles of dissent from papal pretension. Having found that the Pope had become less complaisant than when he was his guest at the Tuilleries, he began the execution of his design by putting the Holy Father in durance, and constituting him prisoner in one of the French departments. The intervention of some pressing business, either the projected invasion of England, or a predatory expedition on the continent, and which required his presence, interrupted the plan of being the instructor of mankind, and he reassumed his ordinary occupation of being its scourge."

The description of Paris when the allies were about to enter, is so characteristick of the manners of that capital that we cannot forbear extracting it.

"While these formidable armies were in contest without the walls, for the possession of Paris, various were the alarms and terrours which agitated its inhabitants. At length, however, the report was generally circulated, that the allies were about to turn the siege into a blockade; that we had nothing to fear from pillage; and that we should only be starved. The arrival, however, of the accustomed provisions the next day, through the midst of the enemy's camp, led the Parisians to apply to Wellington, the well known trait of Henry the Fourth, when he besieged Paris.

"On the 1st July the scene on the Boulevard was quite changed since that of yesterday. The Parisians expected that the enemy would have entered on the first attack, and they were tired of the delay. They had heard the cannon at intervals during twenty-four hours; yesterday this was a novelty; but to-day they felt as if accustomed to be besieged, and returned to their usual avocations and pleasures. Yesterday the theatres were shut, which was indeed a striking signal of distress in Paris; to-day, though the great theatres were closed, the 'Thievish Magpie' resumed his triumph at the theatre of the Porte St. Martin; and that of La Gaiete prepared for publick amusement the bombardment of Algiers,

word conscription, the inscription, or taxation, which took place by order of Augustus when Cyrenius was Governour of Syria, and 'when Joseph went up to Bethlehem, with Mary, to be taxed, being great with child.' This prelate's zeal for his majesty's service would have enlarged the conscription to females and infants yet unborn, while the French emperor's mandate went no farther than the male sex, and those at the age of eighteen, when they were inhumanly called, 'chair à canon'—'food for powder.'"

a melo-drame fitted to fill up the interval of the great melo-drame of national events. The barriers of Paris were prudently shut, and the field of battle without the walls was occupied only by military. Had not the Parisian women been refused egress, curiosity might perhaps have got the better of fear; they would have risked a wound, in the hope that it would not disfigure their faces; and the plains of St. Dennis might have been strewn, not only with wrecks of cabriolets, and pleasure-carts, but with hats, caps, and other articles of military baggage.

"In the evening the Italian Boulevard was crowded, as usual, with the gay tribes, who, seated on double rows of chairs, with an interval for the walkers, pass the latter part of their summer evenings, inhaling the dust in good company. This evening the walk, as usual, had its itinerant band of musick, its ices in the adjoining cafes, and all its accustomed attractions.

"It may be observed, that the Italian Boulevard, so long the haunt of the fashionable world of Paris, has undergone various changes of name during the course of the Revolution. In the first years of that event, this Boulevard was denominated, or was rather stigmatized, by the appellation of Coblentz, on account of its being frequented by that class of society of which a great part had emigrated to that place. On the departure of Louis the Eighteenth, and the return of Buonaparte, Coblentz was subdivided into the Boulevard de Gand, (Ghent,) and the Boulevard de l'île d'Elbe. The former is, at the moment I am writing, brilliant with a thousand wreathes of fresh-blown lilies twined round every hat, while the latter, that of Elba, is abandoned to the faction of the scarlet, pink, and the violet. But to return to the evening of the first of July.—The amusements of the Boulevard were occasionally varied by the march of troops, the beating to arms, the swift pace of couriers, the sound of cannon at intervals; and sometimes all gaiety was suspended by the sad spectacle of the wounded victims of those skirmishes, writhing in agony and covered with blood. I heard one young officer, who was borne along on planks by four of his men, and who was mortally wounded, exclaim as he passed, 'Achevez-moi, mes amis, achevez-moi—vous voyez que je meurs—vive la patrie!' 'Finish me, my friends, put an end to my sufferings; yes, I see I must die;

heaven preserve my country !' It may be supposed that in the heat of battle, such an affecting appeal, and such a noble exclamation might pass unnoticed ; but here, at home, amidst his countrymen, and even women, to find no sympathy, not 'as much pity as would fill the eye of a wren ;' no tender tear from any female spectator—no interest but that of simple curiosity. Oh ! how the spirit of party shuts up every avenue to the heart ; how it blunts every better feeling, how it renders us cruel, and almost wicked !"

The author's remarks on the indiscretion of foreigners in praising Buonaparte are well founded ; and many a stranger has blundered in this way, by thinking to compliment Frenchmen in flattering Napoleon. Whenever he was attacked, they would defend him from a personal feeling that it was an attack on their nation. But we never yet met with a Frenchman during the power of Napoleon, who could hear him praised without dissenting from it, if he thought he was safe in conversing upon it.

"But if the surrender of Paris wounded the feelings of national pride, no real patriot had wished to see the city defended. A vain and hopeless defence had been deprecated by all, except by the enraged Federes of the Fauxbourgs, who sought for a share in spoil and pillage ; and, I must add also, by a few strangers who had nothing to risk, or to lose. One of these, a celebrated historian, was descanting, in a society of the great and the opulent, upon the duty of resistance, and the ignominy of surrender ; when a friend of mine observed, 'on voit que Monsieur n'a rien a Paris que son ecritoire.'—'It appears that this gentleman has nothing at Paris but his ink-horn.' We have, indeed, too often had occasion to observe, that strangers seem to arrive in France, as they would go to a melo-drame, prepared for extraordinary events, and where the deeper the tragedy the better they are entertained.

"It is difficult to imagine any thing more calculated to irritate those who suffer, than to observe curiosity substituted for sympathy by those around them, unless it be to hear the author of these calamities extolled in the presence of his victims. Nothing surprised the French more, during the reign of Napoleon, than to hear the declamations of some English visitors in his favour. Those strangers could scarcely guess what an

effect such panegyrick produced on a Parisian circle, necessarily composed, in part at least, of persons who had suffered from imperial tyranny. It required the whole stock of French courtesy to suppress, on these occasions, the feelings of resentment, and which were the more difficult to stifle from the novelty of the provocation. It must be observed that for some years past no person in France ever praised the emperor, except in speeches to the throne. No minister, senator, or counsellor of state, would have ventured to outrage the feelings of society by saying one word in his favour in a private *salon*. These personages talked of Napoleon, with quite as little ceremony as others, among their friends; in mixed company they were silent on this subject, which was considered as an etiquette belonging to their places, and was therefore admitted; but it was well understood that no attempt would be made to speak in his defence. Judge then how the French were astounded, when they heard some distinguished Englishmen extolling Napoleon the Great, which they did in the French language, but sometimes in English phraseology; and the Parisians, who like better to laugh than to be angry, occasionally avenged themselves by citing pleasantly, in different companies, these neologisms in their English idiom. How, indeed, forbear a sickly smile when we hear newly-arrived strangers, after rolling lightly along the high road in their travelling carriages, having lolled in a box at the Opera, walked through the gallery of the Museum, and eat ices at Tortoni's, gravely assert, that there is no publick misery in France, and that all is well and prosperous. The French are the same people, in one respect, as in the days of Mazarin—they will bear every thing, but they *will* laugh. At the time of Napoleon's return from Moscow, after the first burst of their indignation had subsided, one of the amusements of society was inventing or imagining caricatures, which no one dared to trace, but which were described in company as if they really existed. I remember one represented the entry of the French army at Moscow. They were seen advancing towards the gate, which was thrown open, and where stood a Cossack to give them admission, as if it had been the door of a spectacle. The Cossack had a label on his breast, on which was written, 'Entrez, entrez, Messieurs—on ne payera qu'en sortant.'

The approaches towards a state of Asiatick despotism which the military tyranny of Buonaparte had made, and in which it must have terminated, if it had not been overthrown, were most conspicuous in the proscription of all freedom in literature, and the attempt to mutilate the French dramatick master-pieces. A collection of anecdotes on this subject would furnish much amusement. Miss Williams gives some account of this, and also of the venerable M. Ducis, who imitated and adapted some of the Tragedies of Shakspeare for the French stage, and which are frequently performed. They possess much merit, though the admirers of Shakspeare can hardly endure their comparison with the originals.

"Napoleon considered the police of his own newspapers as a matter of high importance. When he was in Paris, the official paper, before it was struck off, underwent his inspection, and in the course of the impression often received imperial corrections. He was himself a contributor; his style is very distinguishable, and some of his notes are extremely curious. He affected to protect science and letters. This protection was commonly extended to persons whose mediocrity stood in need of it; small men of letters, by whom it was repaid with interest. There were indeed, also a few men of distinguished genius, whose approbation of his measures had led him to name them to eminent posts.* Buonaparte had once been very intimately acquainted with M. Ducis, the present father of French poetry, and who has introduced Hamlet, Othello, and Macbeth, on the French stage. M. Ducis had approved Buonaparte while he thought him the friend of his country, but refused all further communion with him when he became its oppressor. The muses in France have as little of the wisdom of this world as in other countries, and understand no better the art of being rich. Buonaparte knew that the fortune of M. Ducis was in 'a poetical posture,' and he offered him the place of senator, which includes a very considerable salary. Ducis rejected the place as being unfit for a poet. Buonaparte

* He was, however, sometimes tired with excess of servility, and answered one of the literati, who recommended another, because he was of an ancient and noble family, by saying, peevishly, "*Laissez-nous, au moins, la republique des lettres!*"—Leave us, at least, the republick of letters!

would have decorated him with the Legion of Honour ; again Ducis refused. Irritated at this obstinacy, the emperor meditated to avenge the insult, when he was pacified by some of M. Ducis's friends, who excused him on the score of his drooping age. I visited this virtuous old man, the last of the Romans in his retreat. He was surrounded by his books, and did not appear to regret the wealth and honours he had rejected. He was presented, not long since, to the king, who addressed the poet in a citation from his own works.

"The tragick talents of M. Ducis lead me to the recollection of an anecdote relating to the theatre.

"Buonaparte had in the early time of his government expelled the turbulent tribunate, and reduced the legislature to a silent vote ; but there was still one authority in the state which his power was unable to control ; a faction which had hitherto mocked his efforts. This was the faction of the tragick poets, Corneille, Racine, Crebilon, &c. The people, amidst the suppression of their political institutions, and other violations of independence, could still repair to the theatre, and avenge themselves of Buonaparte in the persons of the Cæsars, the Neros, the Phocases, of the French stage. The people had in long tradition, for an hundred years past, applauded certain fine passages filled with horror of tyranny, or swelling sentiments of freedom ; but these passages were now waited for, and hailed with such excess of applause, such a transport of admiration, that the government felt itself insulted. The actors, who were not displeased at the popular enthusiasm, and who no doubt attributed to themselves some share of the applause, strove to earn it by acquitting themselves well of their respective parts, and played the tyrant and usurper most maliciously. It became indispensable to stop this outrage on imperial feelings. The representatives of past despots, and of captive princesses, were ordered to appear at the prefecture's of police, and were accused of acting the forbidden passages with more emphasis than usual. The accusation was a delicate matter, since it implied a certain consciousness that there was 'something rotten in the State of Denmark ;' and one of the tragical queens haughtily answered, that she wondered how any one dared to hint at such guilty applications, and that she considered them as

treason against the emperor. The actors refuted the charge of saying more than was set down for them, by an appeal to the prompter's book. They were dismissed with orders to 'mouth it less,' and the poets were found to be the chiefs of the conspiracy. Their persons were beyond the reach of imperial resentment, but they did not escape punishment; being condemned to a revision of the most brilliant passages of their productions. This revision was confided to M. Esmenard, who had too much poetical taste and talent not to tremble at this sacrilegious commission. But the emperor insisted, and he was compelled to submit. He gave me a ludicrous account of his association and closetings with Buonaparte, in this murder of the classick poets. Many an important despatch was laid aside to weigh the value of an hemistich; an imperial rage against the present sovereigns of Europe was forgotten in contrivance to justify some Roman or Asiatick despot, who had fallen under the displeasure of Corneille.

"The publick sought in vain to recognize their old acquaintances ;

" Qui, de simple soldat, à l'empire élevé,
 " Ne l'a que par le crime acquis, et conservé ;
 " Et comme il n'a semé qu' épouvante, et qu' horreur,
 " Il ne recueille enfin que trouble, et que terreur."

* * * * *

"Tyran, descends du trône, et fais place à ton maître !"

The publick deserted for a while the theatre, and waited the return of departed spirits."

The following anecdote has been told with slight variations, and appeared in some of our newspapers, but it contains an excellent moral; and will shew, except to those magnanimous minds who think all mankind should be trampled upon by some particular nation, that insolence and oppression may at last drive their victims to resistance and revenge.

"The Parisians themselves received occasional lessons from these invaders. An old countess, in the Fauxbourg St. Germain welcomed with politeness a Prussian officer who was quartered on her house. Invited to dinner at the usual time, he ordered that it might be ready at an earlier hour, having asked some brother-officers to dine with him; and throwing himself at the same time with his dirty boots on one of the blue

silk canopies. He went out, and returned alone. The dinner was served. He found the first course detestable, and threw the successive plates to which he was helped on the floor. Shewn to his apartments on the second story, he refused to occupy them, and ordered those of the first floor to be prepared for him, though told that they were inhabited by the mistress of the house. After committing a number of other extravagancies, such as smoking in the lady's *boudoir*, he took possession of her chamber. His servants, and dogs, having retired to the apartments prepared for their master, the lady of the house was obliged to accommodate herself with a room in the attic story. The next morning she was summoned to attend the officer, which she did with trembling, expecting to receive some new insult or humiliation. The countess was astonished at her reception. The Prussian led her gallantly to a seat, and placed himself beside her. 'You have no doubt, madam,' he said, 'been shocked at my behaviour in your house. I marked your astonishment at my insolence in spoiling your silk furniture, scattering fragments of your viands on the floor, smoking in your *boudoir*, turning you out of your apartments, and other extravagancies. You no doubt thought me a barbarian.' The countess did not seem disposed to deny the allegation. 'Madam, you have a son in Prussia?' She started, and her eyes filled with tears, 'I had a son, sir, but I fear he has perished.' 'Do you recognize this writing,' said the officer, shewing her the cover of a letter. 'Yes, sir, it is the last letter I wrote to my son, I have received no answer.' 'Madam, I am no barbarian; I have acted a part, and fulfilled a duty enforced on me by filial tenderness. I almost hate myself for having acted it so well. What I have made you suffer for these last few hours, your son inflicted on my palsied mother for several months. I will distress you no longer—your son is alive—in one of the last skirmishes he was wounded dangerously—I saved him from the fury of our soldiers—My mother provided for his safety—You will soon receive him to your arms. Adieu, madam, I quit your house; I have preserved your son, and I have avenged my mother.'

Miss Williams has enlivened her work with many of the little sallies of wit, that were current in the salons of Paris. Among these are two sayings of M. de Boufflers, the most

brilliant wit of the age. His manner was ingenious, sparkling and peculiar. The Prince de Ligne made him his model, which he imitated rather servilely than successfully. He called Buonaparte "*le cochemare de l'univers*"—"the nightmare of the world."—He said he felt a particular fondness for certain friends, because *they had passed through the storm under the same umbrella*. She cites the observation of M. Gorani during the revolutionary horrors. "I knew the great, but I did not know the little." In speaking of the detention of the English travellers, which she thinks would not have happened a second time, she applies a sarcasm of La Fayette's to the people, who wanted to have the oath of the Federation repeated. "My friends, the oath is an arriette, that people do not play twice."

In speaking of the government desirable for France, she introduces the speech of an inhabitant of the Fauxbourg St. Antoine, to a member of the Convention who was haranguing the people on liberty: "I should be very fond, citizen Representative, of a freedom that was free." After Napoleon's second abdication, when the farce of proclaiming Napoleon the second was in operation, some of the soldiers of the old guard understanding the business, and not willing to fight for they knew not whom, were met by their Colonel on the Boulevard, and reprimanded for deserting their post; they answered sternly, that they had too much honour to desert, "*but we have abdicated.*" The army doubted of the truth of his having abdicated, considering it only a trick of state, and said they knew their Emperour too well to suppose he would resign; this, she says, was like the German some years before, who, on hearing a report of his death, observed with great seriousness, "Buonaparte dead! you know little of his character, he will take good good care of that!"

There is another piece of simplicity of an honest citizen of one of the Fauxbourgs, which was repeated in the circles of Paris; seeing him on horseback after his return from Moscow, he said to a neighbour, "The Emperour is very well, he keeps a good countenance, not at all ashamed."

On a former occasion we alluded to a definition of the English Constitution by the Abbe Montesquieu, "that it was an oligarchy, balanced by the freedom of the press." Miss Will-

iams gives a definition of Chamfort's, of the ancient government of France, that may serve for a parallel; that it was "*an absolute monarchy tempered by songs.*" Songs in France were the substitute for the liberty of the press, and caricatures. It is an old maxim in France, that every thing finishes *par des chansons*. We shall conclude with one more anecdote. Military men had introduced a cant term of contempt for all who were not of their class, by calling them *Pequins*. This gave rise to the following neat retort—"I am sorry," said a Minister to Marshal L——, "that after having long waited for you, we are seated at table before you arrive." "I should have come earlier," replied the Marshal, "but I have been detained by some *pequins*." "*Pequins!*" exclaimed the company, "what are *pequins*?" "Oh you know," rejoined the Marshal, "we call *pequins* all that is not military." "Yes," said the Minister, "just as we call every thing *military*, that is not *civil*."

Discourses on various subjects, by Jeremy Taylor, D. D. Chaplain in Ordinary to King Charles the First, and late Lord Bishop of Down and Connor—In three vols. 8vo. vol. 1. pp. 503.—Boston, published by Wells and Lilly, 1816.

When the books of Topham Beauclerk were sold, some one expressed to Dr. Johnson his surprise, that so many volumes of sermons should be found in the library of a man, who had been distinguished by his gaiety and libertinism. "It is by no means surprising, Sir," replied the great Moralist; "the productions of our English Divines form so large and so important a part of our literature, that every library must be considered defective, which does not contain a considerable portion of them."

The remark of the Doctor is unquestionably just, and from the reign of Queen Elizabeth to the present age, there has followed, in continued succession, a series of English sermons, which have tended to improve and fix the language. In these we find discussed with the greatest ability, by men of the most powerful minds and profoundest learning, the knottiest points of Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics, whilst they afford the richest mines of nervous and significant expressions. Lord Chatham is known to have studied the

sermons of Barrow expressly for this purpose ; and the works of Jeremy Taylor, it is said, have been strongly recommended by the able Editor of a celebrated critical Journal, for a similar reason.

The fastidious delicacy of modern refinement may be occasionally disgusted with the quaintness of these old Divines, and with something that resembles vulgarity. But faults of this nature are rather the faults of the age in which they wrote, than of the writers, and are amply compensated by the earnestness of their manner, the excellence of their matter, the glowing fervour of their thoughts, and the richness and magnificence of their language. In weighing the comparative merits of the old and of the modern Divines, more correctness of composition, and more delicacy of expression are to be found in the latter. But there is little originality or impressive vigour. If the definition of a good sermon by Blair be admitted, that it ought to be "a persuasive oration," we should much doubt whether his own discourses would stand the test. They are, indeed, composed with good sense, and in correct language, and are well adapted to an audience highly refined, and well educated. But whether they would prove 'persuasive orations' to a mixed congregation, (and all congregations are mixed,) is questionable. "To turn sinners from the evil of their ways," which is the exclusive and legitimate object of the Preacher, something more is necessary than a mere moral essay, and cannot, without a miracle, be effected by him, who "never mentions hell to ears polite !" Man is not merely an intellectual animal ; he has also passions, which may be roused, and taught to move in the path of Virtue. Coarse minds, to have an interest excited, require to be startled and alarmed. The GOSPEL must be preached to them ; and its peculiar doctrines and duties powerfully enforced, cannot fail of producing a due impression. Far are we from being the advocates of cant and enthusiasm, which are disgusting in their nature, and immoral in their tendency. But we would also avoid the opposite extreme of confining religious instruction to moral discourses, which we think, is the leading error in most modern sermons. The old Divines we consider the best models in this respect, and among these Jeremy Taylor holds a pre-eminent rank.

This great Prelate was born at Cambridge, in England,

where he graduated early in the seventeenth century.—His extraordinary talents, by which he was soon distinguished, procured for him the situation of Divinity Lecturer at St. Paul's Cathedral, where his reputation attracted the attention, and secured to him the patronage of Archbishop Laud. Whatever were the faults or follies of Laud, he was the patron of literature and of learned men, and through his interest and recommendation, Dr. Taylor was appointed Chaplain in ordinary to the King. During the consequent troubles and the usurpation of Cromwell, he returned to Golden Grove in South Wales, under the protection of Lord Vaughan, Earl of Carbury, and it was here that he composed and preached the sermons, which are the object of our present consideration.

The volume before us contains twenty-five sermons on the following topics. Sermons 1, 2, and 3. Doom's-day Book, or Christ's Advent to Judgment. Sermons 4, 5, and 6. The Return of prayer, or the condition of a prevailing prayer. Ser. 7, 8, 9. Of Godly Fear. Ser. 10, 11. The Flesh and the Spirit. Ser. 12, 13, 14. Of Lukewarmness and Zeal, or Spiritual Fervour. Ser. 15, 16. The House of Feasting, or the Epicure's Measures. Sermons 17, 18. The Marriage Ring, or the Mysteriousness and Duties of Marriage. Ser. 19, 20, 21. Apples of Sodom, or the Fruits of Sin. Ser. 22, 23, 24, 25. The Good and Evil Tongue. Of Slander and Flattery. The Duties of the Tongue.

The first peculiarity, which strikes us in Bishop Taylor, is the extraordinary fulness of his mind, which pours out thought after thought, in rapid succession, clothed in the most energetick language. Speaking of the necessity of a future judgment, he observes: "If you reckon all the causes that come before all the judicatories of the world, though the litigious are too many, and the matters of instance are intricate and numerous, yet the personal and criminal are so few, that of two thousand sins that cry aloud to God for vengeance, scarce two are noted by the publick eye, and chastised by the hand of Justice. It must follow from hence, that it is but reasonable, for the interest of virtue and the necessities of the world, that the private should be judged, and virtue should be tied upon the Spirit and the poor should be relieved, and the oppressed should appeal, and the noise of widows should be heard, and the saints should stand upright, and the cause that

was ill judged should be judged over again, and tyrants should be called to account, and our thoughts should be examined, and our secret actions viewed on all sides, and the infinite number of sins which escape here should not escape finally. And therefore God hath so ordained it, that there shall be a day of doom, wherein all that are let alone by men, shall be questioned by God, and every word, and every action shall receive its just recompense of reward. 'For we must all appear before the judgment-seat of Christ, that every one may receive the things done in his body, according to that he hath done, whether it be good or bad.' " p. 3.

Splendour of imagination is another excellence, which distinguishes Bishop Taylor; for which he has sometimes been styled, the Shakspeare of Divines. The following passage contains strong and terrible painting.

"He that stands in a church yard in the time of a great plague, and hears the passing bell perpetually telling the sad stories of death, and sees crowds of infected bodies pressing to their graves, and others sick and tremulous, and death dressed up in all the images of sorrow round about him, is not supported in his spirit by the variety of his sorrow: and at doomsday, when the terrors are universal, besides that it is in itself so much greater, because it can affright the whole world, it is also made greater by communication, and a sorrowful influence; grief being then strongly infectious, when there is no variety of state but an entire kingdom of fear; and amazement is the king of all our passions, and all the world its subjects; and that shriek must needs be terrible, when millions of men and women at the same instant shall fearfully cry out, and the noise shall mingle with the trumpet of the Archangel, with the thunders of the dying and groaning heavens, and the crack of the dissolving world, when the whole fabrick of nature shall shake into dissolution and eternal ashes." p. 6.

The direct address to the heart and conscience of the hearer, is a very powerful weapon in the hands of a skilful orator. We cite the first specimen that occurs.

"We may consider, that this infinite multitude of men and women, angels and devils, is not ineffective, as a number in Pythagoras's Tables, but must needs have influence upon every spirit that shall there appear: for the transactions of that court are not like orations spoken by a Grecian orator in the circles

of his people, heard by them that crowd nearest him, or that sound limited by the circles of air, or the enclosure of a wall; but every thing is represented to every person; and then let it be considered, when thy shame and secret turpitude, thy midnight revels and secret hypocrisies, thy lustful thoughts and treacherous designs, thy falsehood to God and startings from thy holy promises, thy follies and impieties shall be laid open before all the world, and that then shall be spoken by the trumpet of an Archangel upon the house-top, the highest battlements of heaven, all those filthy words and lewd circumstances, which thou didst act secretly; thou wilt find that thou wilt have reason strangely to be ashamed. All the wise men in the world shall know, how vile thou hast been: and then consider with what confusion of face wouldst thou stand in the presence of a good man and a severe, if peradventure he should suddenly draw thy curtain, and find thee in the sins of shame and lust; it must be infinitely more, when God and all the angels of heaven and earth, all his holy myriads and all his redeemed saints, shall stare and wonder at thy impurities and follies." p. 12.

Nothing in general would be less interesting to a popular assembly, than a long definition, however precise in its logick.—But, when illuminated by the torch of Genius, and adorned with the rich colouring of a splendid imagination, it may justly lay claim to the palm of eloquence.

"Fear is the duty we owe to God, as being the God of power and justice, the great judge of heaven and earth, the avenger of the cause of widows, the patron of the poor, and the advocate of the oppressed, a mighty God and terrible; and so essential an enemy to sin, that he spared not his own Son, but gave him over to death, and to become a sacrifice, when he took upon him our nature, and became a person obliged for our guilt. Fear is the great bridle of intemperance, the modesty of the Spirit, and the restraint of gaieties and dissolutions; it is the girdle to the soul, and the handmaid to repentance, the arrest of sin, and the cure or antidote to the spirit of reprobation; it preserves our apprehensions of the divine majesty, and hinders our single actions from combining to sinful habits; it is the mother of consideration, and the nurse of sober councils, and it put this soul to fermentation and activity, making it to pass from trembling to caution, from caution to carefulness, from

carefulness to watchfulness, from thence to prudence ; and by the gates and progresses of repentance, it leads the soul on to love, and to felicity, and to joys in God, that shall never cease again. Fear is the guard of a man in the days of prosperity, and it stands upon the watch-towers and spies the approaching danger, and gives warning to them that laugh loud, and feast in the chambers of rejoicing, where a man cannot consider by reason of the noises of wine, and jest, and musick : and if prudence takes it by the hand, and leads it on to duty, it is a state of grace, and an universal instrument to infant religion, and the only security of the less perfect persons ; and in all senses is that homage we owe to God, who sends often to demand it, even then, when he speaks in thunder, or smites by a plague, or awakens us by his threatenings, or discomposes our easiness by sad thoughts, and tender eyes, and fearful hearts, and trembling considerations." p. 167.

We sincerely hope that the sale of these sermons will be as extensive as their merit is unquestionable, that the publishers may be encouraged to favour the publick with other works of this eminent Prelate, particularly his life of Christ, and his *Ductor Dubitantium*. The present volume is handsomely and accurately printed, with clear type and on good paper, and is in every respect superiour to the English octavo edition. It has also an additional recommendation to English Readers, as it contains original translations of the quotations from the Greek and Latin authors, with which the Bishop abounds. These translations are executed with apparent fidelity and neatness, and those from the poets in sufficiently smooth numbers. We would recommend to students in divinity the works of Bishop Taylor as a study ; from which they will derive more benefit than from tracing the endless mazes of polemick divinity. We may say of controversial theologians, what has been said of metaphysicians ; " They resemble minuet dancers, who having moved twice or thrice in the figure of the circle or the octagon, leave off precisely where they began."

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNALS.

CAMBRIDGE, BY PROFESSOR FARRAR.

MARCH, 1816.

Day.	Barometer.			Thermometer.			Face of Sky.		Winds.	
	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	9 P. M.
1	30.27	30.26	30.41	33	47	31	Fair	Clo	N	E
2	30.28	30.27	30.19	33	38	33	Clo	Clo	NE	NE 2
3	30.14	30.14	30.23	35	40	37	Clo	Clo	N	E
4	30.27	30.10	29.99	32	35	33	Clo	Clo	NW	E
5	30.24	30.25	30.37	30	38	27	Fair	Fair	NW 2	W
6	30.38	30.33	30.29	30	35	23	Clo	Fair	E	W
7	30.27	29.97	29.74	23	43	32	Fair	Clo	W	SE 1
8	29.79	29.95	30.08	21	25	8	Clo	Fair	W	NW 3
9	30.13	30.12	30.25	0	27	17	Fair	Fair	NW 2	NW 2
10	30.34	30.39	30.38	15	39	25	Fair	Fair	NW 2	NW 2
11	30.50	30.54	30.41	19	36	25	Fair	Clo	W	SW
12	30.27	30.16	30.17	30	42	23	Clo	Fair	E	N
13	30.24	30.24	30.10	13	47	30	Fair	Clo	SW	S
14	29.76	29.75	30.03	38	48	32	Clo	Clo	S	W
15	30.34	30.35	30.37	14	37	18	Fair	Fair	NW 2	NW
16	30.15	30.09	30.00	15	38	34	Fair	Clo	SW 2	SW
17	30.05	30.12	30.61	33	48	10	Clo	Fair	SW	NW 3
18	30.95	30.95	30.92	5	20	15	Fair	Clo	NW 2	NW
19	30.75	30.52	30.38	20	32	20	Clo	Clo	E	NE
20	30.17	29.95	29.92	21	35	32	Clo	Fair	NW	W 2
21	30.08	30.08	30.08	25	40	27	Fair	Clo	W	W
22	30.36	30.39	30.44	16	34	15	Fair	Fair	NW	W
23	30.44	30.36	30.19	20	43	28	Clo	Clo	W	W
24	30.13	30.11	30.11	32	47	28	Clo	Fair	W	W
25	29.97	30.14	30.30	34	40	28	Fair	Fair	W 2	SW
26	30.06	29.85	29.87	35	56	34	Clo	Fair	W	W
27	29.90	29.85	29.72	32	48	38	Fair	Clo	W	E
28	29.45	29.50	29.78	43	52	38	Clo	Fair	S	SW 2
29	30.00	30.22	30.44	33	34	20	Fair	Fair	NE	NW
30	30.61	30.55	30.52	20	38	32	Clo	Fair	N	E
31	30.45	30.37	30.27	31	40	35	Clo	Clo	NE	E
30.95 30.95 30.92 43 56 38 Greatest.										
30.217 30.189 30.196 24.87 42.64 26.61 Mean.										
29.45 29.50 29.72 5 25 8 Least.										

Rain on the 2d and 3d, and snow on the 4th, .68 in.—6 1-2 inches of snow on the 14th, .72—violent snow storm on the 19th and 20th; average depth 10 inches, reduced to water, .87—little snow on the night of the 25th, and on the morning of the 30th, reduced .16.—Whole quantity of rain and dissolved snow, 2.43.

BRUNSWICK, BOWDOIN COLLEGE.

BY PROFESSOR CLEVELAND.

DECEMBER, 1815.

Thermometer.						Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A M	1 P M	15 minutes after sunset	Maximum of cold	Maximum of heat	7 30 A M	1 P M	15 minutes after sunset	7 30 A M	15 minutes after sunset	7 30 A M	15 minutes after sunset
1	12	19	18	12	20	29.88	29.92	30.03	N	N	Fair	Fair
2	7.5	19.5	15.5	4.5	20	30.21	30.23	30.25	N E	S E	Fair	Fair
3	18	39	37.5	5	40	30.10	29.94	29.86	S W	S W	Fair	Cloudy
4	36	42.7	41.5	26.7	43.5	29.43	29.30	29.30	S W	S W	Rain	Cloudy
5	18.2	27	23	17.5	28	29.78	29.75	29.80	N W	N W	Fair	Cloudy
6	7	32.5	34	2.5	35	30.05	29.95	29.89	W	S W	Fair	Cloudy
7	32	43	38.5	31.2	44	29.68	29.58	29.52	S W	S W	Fair	Rain
8	26	14.5	8	6	28	29.41	29.57	29.73	N W	N W	Fair	Fair
9	5.5	18.5	16	6.5	19	30.03	30.05	30.09	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
10	1.5	13	9	7.5	13.5	29.41	29.43	29.47	N W	N W	Fair	Fair
11	5	21	15	8	22	30.50	29.44	29.92	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
12	28	33.5	30.5	3.5	34	30.04	29.96	29.94	S W	S W	Snow	Snow
13	14	32.5	28	11	34	30.06	30.06	30.09	N W	N E	Fair	Cloudy
14	8	26.5	24	5.5	27	29.95	29.93	29.86	N E	N E	Fair	Fair
15	22	28	29	12.7	29	29.79	29.72	29.72	N E	N E	Cloudy	Cloudy
16	21	33	31.5	15	33	29.74	29.70	29.66	N	E	Snow	Cloudy
17	30	34	32.5	28.5	34	29.31	29.27	29.21	N	N	Cloudy	Cloudy
18	19.7	35	30.5	19.5	35.5	29.25	29.29	29.31	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
19	14.5	25.5	22	13.5	26.5	29.48	29.55	29.60	W	N W	Fair	Fair
20	1	25	19	3.5	26	29.93	29.94	29.96	N W	N W	Fair	Fair
21	7	29.5	26	1	30	29.96	29.84	29.80	N W	N W	Fair	Fair
22	1	32	26.5	0.5	33	29.69	29.50	29.63	N E	S W	Fair	Cloudy
23	9	42	32	7	42.5	29.72	29.73	29.76	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
24	38	45	36	25.7	46.5	29.41	29.10	29.20	E	S W	Rain	Fair
25	23	34	27	21	35.2	29.58	29.58	29.59	N W	S W	Fair	Fair
26	14	26.5	23.5	11	27	29.76	29.73	29.75	W	W	Fair	Fair
27	8	26	22	6.5	26.5	29.72	29.71	29.74	S W	N W	Fair	Cloudy
28	10	22.5	20	6.5	23	29.89	29.89	29.94	N W	N W	Fair	Fair
29	5	21.5	18.5	2	22	30.10	30.08	30.15	N	N E	Fair	Fair
30	13	20	17.5	6.5	20	30.15	30.10	30.08	N E	N E	Cloudy	Cloudy
31	20	22.5	22	15.5	23	29.85	29.65	29.47	N E	N	Snow	Snow
Mean	14.9	23.5	25.0	10.1	29.7	29.80	29.72	29.75				

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each

day - - - - - 22.79°

ditto maxima of heat and cold - 19.89

Mean pressure of the atmosphere - - 29.76 in.

Greatest monthly range of barometer - 1.40

Rain and snow dissolved - - - - 2.41

JANUARY, 1816.

Thermometer.						Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.
1	14	30	24.5	13.5	31	29.37	29.35	29.40	S W	W	Fair	Fair
2	17	24.5	20.5	7	25	29.47	29.45	29.54	NW	NW	Clo	Clo
3	1	23.5	24	2	24	29.75	29.77	29.81	W	NW	Fair	Fair
4	3	24	17.5	5	24.5	29.95	29.84	29.86	NW	E	Fair	Fair
5	11	20.5	17	6	21	29.77	29.60	29.56	N	N E	Clo	Clo
6	24	26	23	1	26	39.37	29.17	29.16	N E	N	Snow	Snow
7	16.2	23.5	21	16	24	29.24	29.24	29.32	NW	NW	Fair	Clo
8	8	14	9.5	8	15	29.46	29.42	29.40	N E	N E	Clo	Fair
9	3.5	8	6	5.2	9	29.45	29.47	29.48	W	S W	Clo	Clo
10	9	19.5	10.5	12.7	20	29.52	29.61	29.75	W	NW	Fair	Fair
11	15	12	10.5	17.5	13.5	30.18	30.24	30.29	W	S W	Fair	Clo
12	10	15	9.5	8	16	29.93	29.68	29.70	N E	N	Snow	Snow
13	5	19.5	11	9	21	30.15	30.20	30.31	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
14	6	21.5	16	17.5	22	30.33	30.29	30.27	S W	N E	Clo	Clo
15	12	12.5	7	13.7	13.2	30.46	30.49	30.53	N E	S W	Fair	Fair
16	8	26	24	13.5	26.5	30.34	30.22	30.15	S W	S W	Fair	Clo
17	40	46	15	24	43	29.75	29.59	29.46	S	S	Mist	Rain
18	31	40.5	34.5	29.5	42	29.68	29.76	29.83	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
19	24	36.5	31	18.5	38	29.84	29.80	29.81	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
20	24	30.5	25.5	23.7	31	29.81	29.84	29.87	W	NW	Fair	Fair
21	24	33.5	33	17	36	29.65	29.57	29.56	S W	S W	Fair	Fair
22	23	44	37	18	45	29.81	29.88	29.99	NW	W	Fair	Fair
23	19	41.5	35	16	42	30.22	30.29	30.18	N	S E	Fair	Fair
24	36	40.5	34	27.5	41	29.90	29.80	29.75	S W	S W	Mist	Clo
25	25	25	20	16	25	30.00	30.03	30.04	NW	NW	Fair	Fair
26	15	12.5	9	6	18	30.00	30.11	30.17	NW	NW	Fair	Fair
27	4	25	22	1.5	26.5	30.11	30.04	30.00	NW	NW	Fair	Clo
28	7	32	27	6	33.2	29.91	29.86	29.80	NW	S E	Fair	Clo
29	21	31.5	26.5	13	33	29.57	29.46	29.42	NW	S	Clo	Clo
30	23	29	24	19.7	30	29.50	29.58	29.69	NW	NW	Fair	Fair
31	9	33	25.5	2	34.5	29.76	29.71	29.70	N E	S W	Fair	Clo
Mn.	11.7	26.5	21.9	5.9	27.6	29.81	29.78	29.80				

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each day - - - - - 20.06
 ditto maxima of heat and cold - 16.77
 Mean pressure of the atmosphere - - - 29.79 in.
 Greatest monthly range of barometer - - 1.37
 Rain and snow dissolved - - - - - 2.80

FEBRUARY, 1816.

Thermometer.					Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.
1 34	34.5	33	24.5	36	29.45	29.33	29.30	SE	N	Rain	Cl'dy
2 19	27	26.7	18.7	28.5	29.33	29.39	29.45	NW	NW	Fair	Fair
3 14	26.5	24	7	27	29.82	29.85	29.86	NW	SW	Fair	Cl'dy
4 23	24	20.5	20.5	24	29.68	29.50	29.44	N	NW	Mist	Mist
5 13	30	26.5	11	31.5	29.73	29.75	29.80	W	W	Fair	Cl'dy
6 3	23	18	3	25	29.90	29.98	29.96	SW	W	Fair	Fair
7 28.5	33	24	8.2	34	29.60	29.48	29.53	SW	NW	Snow	Fair
8 1	16	5	3	16	29.64	29.60	29.64	NW	NW	Fair	Fair
9 8	5.5	0	16.5	6	29.68	29.60	29.60	NE	NW	Hazy	Fair
10 3	19	10	16	20	29.52	29.45	29.50	SW	NW	Fair	Fair
11 12	28.5	24.5	5	33	29.72	29.75	29.72	NW	SW	Fair	Cl'dy
12 38	40	38	18	42	29.11	28.86	28.94	S	W	Rain	Cl'dy
13 11	16.5	13	9	17	29.46	29.50	29.52	W	NW	Fair	Fair
14 1	9	5	3	9	29.69	29.70	29.72	N	NE	Fair	Fair
15 9	2.5	2.7	11.7	4	29.92	29.89	29.89	N	NW	Fair	Fair
16 5	15.5	15	11.5	17	29.89	29.89	29.94	SW	W	Fair	Fair
17 3	30	28	3	33	30.06	29.97	29.81	NE	SE	Fair	Snow
18 25	31	25	23.5	31	29.75	29.70	29.60	NE	NE	Snow	Snow
19 27	32	32	23	34	29.30	29.09	29.30	NE	SW	Rain	Fair
20 25	41	35	19.5	42	29.96	30.04	30.11	SW	SW	Fair	Cl'dy
21 21	35	25	18	38	30.41	30.39	30.28	NE	NE	Fair	Snow
22 27.5	36	32	24.5	37	29.40	29.53	29.55	N	N	Snow	Cl'dy
23 25	42	32	22.5	43	29.72	29.70	29.80	N	E	Fair	Snow
24 16	40	29.5	13	42	29.90	29.95	29.95	SW	S	Fair	Snow
25 35	44	34.5	29	46	29.70	29.66	29.66	E	SW	Cl'dy	Cl'dy
26 29	44	35	20	46	29.72	29.72	29.76	NW	NW	Fair	Cl'dy
27 20	31	30	15	34	30.04	30.05	30.00	NW	S	Fair	Fair
28 31	46	34	26.5	47	29.97	30.03	30.10	SW	SE	Fair	Fair
29 40	42	39	18.5	42	29.81	29.69	29.66	S	S	Rain	Fog
Mns. 17.1 29.1 24					10.6 30.5 29.72 29.69 29.70						

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each

day - - - - - 24.32

ditto

maxima of heat and cold 20.55

Mean pressure of the atmosphere - - - 29.703 in.

Greatest monthly range of barometer - - 1.55

Snow reduced to water, and rain - - - 2.82

February 12.—Barometer very low.

MARCH, 1816.

Thermometer.					Barometer.			Winds.		Weather.	
	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	Maximum of cold.	Maximum of heat.	7 30 A. M.	1 P. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	7 30 A. M.	15 minutes after sunset.	
1	30	44.5	34.5	24.5	46	30.03	30.12	30.15	NW	SE	Fair
2	24	42.5	36.5	19.5	45	30.12	30.01	29.99	NW	E	Fair
3	36.5	44.5	37	33.7	47	29.89	29.94	29.99	NE	NE	Fog
4	21	25	24.5	20.5	25	30.09	29.98	29.83	NE	NE	Mist
5	26	33	33.5	21	34	29.85	29.99	30.10	NW	NW	Fair
6	21	42.5	25.7	15.5	44	30.12	30.10	30.05	NE	SE	Cloudy
7	23	37	28	10	38.5	29.93	29.80	29.64	NE	SE	Cloudy
8	17.5	20	15	15	21	29.50	29.60	29.63	NW	NW	Snow
9	4	21	15.7	0.5	21	29.71	29.70	29.80	NW	NW	Fair
10	16	32	32	2	38	29.97	29.98	30.02	NW	NW	Fair
11	16	33	29	7	39.7	30.21	30.20	30.17	NW	SW	Fair
12	21	40	33	11	42	30.00	29.93	29.90	NE	SE	Cloudy
13	18	36	32	10	43.5	29.97	29.96	29.88	W	S	Fair
14	35.5	42	40	29	43	29.50	29.40	29.50	SW	NW	Rain
15	10.5	21	21	8	21	30.02	30.03	30.04	NW	E	Fair
16	14	29.5	30	1.5	33	30.02	29.84	29.66	SW	SW	Fair
17	21	26	11	11	27	29.82	29.84	30.00	NW	NW	Cloudy
18	4	10.5	12.5	8.7	13	30.53	30.53	30.54	NW	NW	Fair
19	8	18	17.7	1	21	30.49	29.89	29.77	NE	NE	Snow
20	17	27	26.5	14	28	29.85	29.60	29.56	NE	W	Snow
21	30	37.5	28.7	23	38.5	29.67	29.71	29.74	NW	NW	Fair
22	16.5	24	22	12.7	29	30.01	30.05	30.08	NW	NW	Fair
23	10	33	28	7.5	36	30.15	30.07	29.95	NW	SW	Cloudy
24	31	40	35	0.5	43	29.80	29.83	29.83	NW	NW	Cloudy
25	28	37	30	17.5	41	29.64	29.80	29.83	NW	NW	Fair
26	30	46.5	38	26	49	29.83	29.66	29.63	SE	E	Snow
27	29	48.7	40	1	50	29.67	29.65	29.56	NW	SE	Fair
28	37	44	38	3	49	29.20	29.09	29.30	SE	NW	Fog
29	24	23.5	21	21	24	29.69	29.85	29.99	NW	NW	Fair
30	18	30	28.5	5	31	30.24	30.30	30.23	NW	SW	Fair
31	37	42	36.7	28	46	30.21	30.20	30.11	S	SE	Snow
Mean	21.5	33.3	28.4	14.1	35.7	29.92	29.89	29.88			

Mean temperature deduced from three observations each

day - - - - - 27.73°

ditto maxima of heat and cold 24.90

Mean pressure of the atmosphere - - - - 29.896 in.

Greatest monthly range of barometer - - - 1.45

Snow reduced to water, and rain - - - 1.83

March 11.—Iris'd halo about the moon, 30° diameter.

23.—The thermometer at 7 1-2 degrees below zero, at this season, is very uncommon.

28.—Severe thunder shower; the cloud was extensive, but very narrow and uncommonly low.

MISCELLANEOUS AND LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

A Greek literary society has been recently established at Athens. It is composed of the most distinguished native and foreign literati residing in that city.

Some curious fragments of Homer's Iliad have been discovered by Angelo Maja, attached to the Ambrosian library at Milan. One of these is a MS. pre-eminently beautiful, and of all the Homer MSS. the most venerable and the most admirable. Of these only fifty eight fragments remain, each of which has its picture, and the whole comprise about 800 verses. Maja intends publishing these precious reliques. The penmanship is simple and elegant.

A correspondence between Hume, the Marchioness de Barbantine, and the Countess of Boufflers has lately been discovered, and excited much curiosity.

Letters from Trieste state, that Count Gottorp (Gustavus, late King of Sweden) is in that city, with a retinue of fourteen persons, among whom is one female. The Count intends to proceed without delay to Jerusalem; but according to appearances, the funds of the party are not adequate to so distant an expedition. The Count shews himself very little in publick. He will embark in a French ship for Corfu, and there collect all the information for his farther progress.

From a late *official* calculation, the annual income of some of the principal *landed* estates of England are estimated as follows.

Duke of Northumberland	£125,000.
Duke of Devonshire	115,000.
Duke of Rutland	107,000.
Duke of Bedford	95,000.
Duke of Marlborough	90,000.
Duke of Buccleugh	90,000.
Earl Grosvenor	84,000.
Duke of Portland	80,090.
Marquis Cholmondeley	78,000.
Marquis of Hertford	77,000.
Earl of Bute	76,000.
Earl of Lonsdale	74,000.
Earl of Fitzwilliam	70,000.
Duke of Norfolk	68,000.
Earl of Darlington	65,000.
Duke of Beaufort	60,000.
Earl of Harewood	60,000.
Earl Egremont	60,000.

Earl Spencer	58,000.
Mr. Coke	52,000.
Colonel Hughes	49,000.
Sir W. Manners	48,000.

University of Upsal in Sweden. During the first six months of 1814, the number of students at the University of Upsala was 1109 ; of which 693 were present, and 416 absent. Among this number were included 93 sons of nobles ; 300 sons of clergymen, 294 sons of tradesmen and citizens, 175 sons of farmers and peasants, 262 sons of public functionaries, 30 sons of military men, and 2 foreigners.—As to the kinds of study pursued by these youths, the number attached to theology was 269 ; to jurisprudence 159 ; to physick 123 ; to philosophy 307 ; and to various other sciences, 251.—The number of donations and exhibitions by patrons was 193 ; of which 26 by the King ; 20 of physick and theology ; and 137 founded by individual benefactors to literature.

Spanish Missionaries. As one of the curious means adopted by Ferdinand the 7th to secure his newly assumed power, we learn from Spain, that he sent Missionaries throughout the country, to doctrinize the people who have been influenced by the late revolution ; these Missionaries are Franciscan Friars belonging to the Apostolical Colleges. At a town 12 leagues from Madrid, one of these Friars got up into the pulpit, and harangued his hearers on the subject of the late constitution. He said it was heretical, jacobinical, destructive of religion, morality, &c.—For a long time coughings were constantly heard throughout his audience, till at length a tall whiskered muleteer, who could bear it no longer, got up and cried out, “ Father, this is not the Gospel ; you were sent here to preach the Gospel, and not a political discourse.” In an instant all the audience rose up, the poor Friar took to his heels, escaped through the Sacristy to the Curate’s house, and being pursued, fled over the garden wall.

Mr. Pitkin, member of Congress from Connecticut, has published a work on the products, commerce, manufactures, publick debt, and revenues of the United States. We have not been able, in the present number of the North-American Review, to bestow on this publication the attention which it deserves. It is a book which every statesman, and every man who is concerned in publick affairs, or who desires to judge of them correctly, ought to have in his hands. It does not contain systems and principles, and speculations, like the work of the great founder of economical Science. It abounds in facts and tables, and is rather to be consulted than read. It is one of

those books which are convenient to have at hand, to clear up occasional doubts, and settle particular inquiries.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Count Rumford's Legacy. Through the attention of the gentlemen who kindly undertook to be agents for the University in relation to this concern, Messrs. Welles and Williams of Paris, the documents on the subject have been recently transmitted. It appears that the executors of the Count's will, the Baron De Lessart and Daniel Parker, Esqrs. have settled the estate with the greatest fidelity and care, and that the sum arising to the College from the Count's bequest, is from nine to eleven hundred dollars per annum, the capital being vested in the name of the University in the French funds.

Officers of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, elected May 28th, 1816.

Edward Augustus Holyoke, M. D. President.

John Thornton Kirkland, D. D. LL. D. Vice President.

COUNSELLORS.

Hon. George Cabot.

Hon. Thomas Dawes,

Caleb Gannet, Esq.

Henry Ware, D. D.

James Freeman, D. D.

Charles Bulfinch, Esq.

Aaron Dexter, M. D.

William D. Peck, Prof. Nat.

Hist.

Hon. John Davis, LL. D.

Hon. Josiah Quincy.

John Farrar, Recording Secretary.

Hon. Josiah Quincy, Corresponding Secretary.

Thomas L. Winthrop, Esq. Treasurer.

Jacob Bigelow, M. D. Vice Treasurer.

Charles Bulfinch, Esq. Librarian.

John Gorham, Cabinet Keeper.

COMMITTEE OF PUBLICATIONS.

Revd. Dr. Kirkland,

Prof. Willard,

Revd. Dr. Freeman,

Prof. Farrar.

Hon. Nathaniel Bowditch.

Donations received during the last year.

Memoirs of the Imperial Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburg for the year 1809, presented by the society.

Transactions of the Literary and Philosophical Society of New-York. vol. 1st. by David Hosack, M. D.

A volume of the Transactions of the Royal Veterinarian Society of Copenhagen, by the Society.

Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Stockholm, for the years 1812, 1813, 1814.

Maton's British Cottage architecture, by William Paine, M. D.

Eulogy on the late Dr. John Warren, M. D. by Hon. Josiah Bartlett, M. D.

Specimens of Stalactites, from a cave in the vicinity of lake Erie, collected by General Miller, and presented by the Revd. Charles Stearns, D. D.

In 1796, the late Count Rumford made a very liberal donation to the Academy, the proceeds of which, amounting to one hundred and fifty dollars a year, were to be given every two years, as a premium to the author of the most important discovery or useful improvement that might be made in any part of the continent of America, or in any of the American islands, during the preceding two years, on heat or on light. The premium has been claimed by several persons, but has never been adjudged to any one. The fund has accordingly accumulated, and now yields an annual income of 446 dollars.

There have been received at the Boston Atheneum, recently, several late foreign works. Among them the Abbe de Pradt's History of the Congress of Vienna, Lacretelle's History of France, Tureau's view of the United States, a work on domestick servitude, by Bishop Gregoire, &c. The funds of this valuable institution have been all swallowed up in its extensive library and the building that contains it, so that many contemporary works which are very interesting, cannot be obtained. All the principal English periodical works are regularly received, but those from the Continent of Europe, from France, Italy and Germany, are only obtained accidentally. A few more annual subscribers would be sufficient to procure all the most celebrated of these, and they are quite necessary, to keep us informed of the state of those countries. We cannot help thinking, that if the publick was fully aware of the advantages attending this institution, and that for an annual subscription of only ten dollars, the subscriber is admitted at all times to the treasures both of amusement and learning which that establishment offers, that the number of subscribers would be increased so far, as to enable the Directors to obtain all the principal European journals.

We received the following note from the writer of the article on the solar spots, too late to be inserted in its proper place.

"A large spot was visible on Friday the 24th May, just entered on the eastern limb of the sun, the magnitude and the time of its appearance corresponded very well with that which attracted so much attention the first of this month. There can be little doubt, that it is the same, although its form is very different. The individual parts, of which it is composed, have the same character. On the 28th and 29th, it had approached near the centre of the sun, and was very conspicuous. It was much extended, occupying about an eighth part of the sun's diameter; when seen indistinctly, it had very much the appearance of a flock of wild geese."

Mr. J. E. Worcester, of Salem, has issued proposals for publishing a *Universal Dictionary of Geography, Ancient and Modern*; founded, so far as it respects the *modern* geography of the eastern continent, upon Cruttwell's Gazetteer, with additions and corrections. On the subject of *ancient* geography, the work of D'Anville will be made the principal basis. With respect to *American*, materials will be collected from a great variety of sources, and the work will be made far more complete, with regard to this continent, than any that has yet been published.

The work will comprise, in one large volume, and in an alphabetical series, more than *four times as many articles of Geography* as are to be found in the Gazetteers which have been published in America. The design is to reduce the various materials to the narrowest compass possible, and to specify respecting every article, those particulars for which a Gazetteer is usually consulted.

There has recently been discovered a manuscript, which will afford much information and delight to those who are fond of investigating the early history of our country. It is a third part of Governor Winthrop's Journal, of which the two former were printed in 1790; and records events from 1644 to 1649, terminating a few weeks before the author's death. It is in perfect preservation, and some account of its derivation and authenticity will be given, we hear, in the volume of Collections of the Historical Society, now in the press. Though this writing was known and used, as well as the former parts, by Mather in compiling his heavy *Magnalia*, and by Hubbard in his history of New-England, yet the narrative is so much more minute and precise in its detail than those historians, that it is extremely interesting to our antiquaries. This manuscript is also marked by Prince's hand writing on the cover. We are therefore happy to be the first to announce, that it is in the hands of a Committee of the Historical Society of Massachusetts, for transcription, and that it may be expected to appear next year, in the seventh volume of their Collections.

This discovery may lead to the publication of a new Edition of the whole work, which would be well received by the publick. So many errors in mistaking one word for another, in omitting words, members of sentences, whole periods, and in some instances paragraphs, besides corruptions of proper names, and dates, are discoverable; that a complete collation of the whole volume with the original manuscript is highly important.

A pamphlet entitled "*Documents and Facts relative to military events during the late war*," has been published by General

Boyd. The statements it contains are calculated to gain him more credit from the publick, than it was his lot to obtain from the despatches of the commanding Generals. A pamphlet relating to the capture of Washington, attributed to General Armstrong ; an answer to it, said to be by General Winder ; another by General Izard, have also been published ; all these will be useful documents to the historian, who shall hereafter give an account of that war, when the events and the actors will be described impartially, without being swayed by party or personal prejudices.

In our last number, we mentioned that a plan was on foot to found an institution for the promotion of the Fine Arts in Boston. A subscription has been commenced, and from its present state there is every reason to presume, that the sum required for the purpose, which is not large, will be obtained. The temporary pressure in money concerns which has lately taken place, rendered it expedient in the opinion of those who had undertaken to further this design, to suspend for a short time an application to individuals, who might now be discouraged from contributing that support, which they would liberally afford at a more favourable moment. In the mean time, our artists are pursuing their labours successfully. Col. Sargent has been for some months engaged on a very large picture, of the highest grade of the historical class. The subject is the entrance of our Saviour into Jerusalem, mounted on an ass, attended by an immense multitude, strewing branches of palms in his way. The subject is treated in an epick way. A number of incidents are introduced with great judgment and effect, the grouping, the back ground and the general arrangement of the picture, possess very great merit. It is almost impossible to judge of so large a work as this, in its unfinished state, or to predict with certainty what will be the effect when complete. But we may say with confidence that this picture cannot fail of gaining great reputation for the artist, and if the colouring and finishing should answer to the design, that it will not only be the first picture ever produced in this country, but will stand high among the great productions of modern times. Mr. Fisher, though a little impeded by ill health, has completed two or three beautiful landscapes and cattle pieces. We are gratified to perceive that the constant improvement of this artist, gives the assurance that he will, at an early period, stand at the head of his profession in this branch of the art. Mr. Morse has added two or three pictures to his collection. One a landscape with figures, rich in architectural designs, and brilliant colouring, a fine, classick composition ; also a sea piece, in which the bristly appearance

of the distant outline, denotes the violence of the tempest, as well as the mountainous wave in the fore part; the sky is grand and sublime. Mr. Newton has painted a head of Diana, of great freshness and beauty, and two or three subjects of Shakspeare, which shew how well he is calculated to succeed in the branch of cabinet pictures; there is great spirit, humour and effect in the countenances and groups, and his style of colouring is rich and natural. Mr. Penniman has painted Dorothea from Don Quixotte, in the manner of one of the Italian schools. If the state of patronage here would allow this artist to pursue the more liberal branches of the profession, this picture is sufficient to shew that he would attain eminence.

The only piece of sculpture by Mr. Willard, since our last report, that we have seen, is an Eagle on a large scale, executed in wood. It is an additional proof of his skill and talent. This hasty sketch contains only a mention of a part of our artists; how it is to be regretted that there is no place of exhibition where all their works might be deposited, and in a good light, so that the publick might see them to advantage, and become acquainted with the merit and resources we possess. We hope, by another season, this will be provided.

THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY.

Mr. Loring D. Dewey has published a discourse, delivered before a private society of the students of the Theological Seminary in New-York, of which he was a member. It is the principal object of this discourse to shew, that being *justified*, in the language of the New-Testament, means being *pardoned*. This heinous proceeding of the young gentleman, was the occasion of the following letter.

“NEW-YORK, 12th March, 1816.

“To Mr. Loring D. Dewey—

“SIR—It is matter of grief to us, that any of our pupils, whom we have been endeavouring to lead into the knowledge of the truth as it is in Jesus, should turn away from the holy commandment delivered unto him. This, misguided youth, is your own case. The doctrines which you have avowed in your discourse submitted to us, and in your conversation with us relative thereto, are so deeply erroneous, so radically subversive of the whole Gospel scheme, and so ruinous to the souls of men, that they cannot be tolerated in the Seminary under our care. It shall not here be so much as questioned, no, not for an hour, whether attacks upon essential parts of the Redeemer's work, are to be permitted in any shape, or upon any pretence whatever.

“ We are, therefore, under the afflicting necessity of informing you, that your connexion with our Seminary ceases from this day. You will consider the present decision as peremptory ; and not to be altered, unless it shall please God to give you a sounder mind, and enable you to recover yourself out of the snare of the devil. That such may be your happiness is our heart’s desire and prayer for you.

J. M. MASON, *Principal Th. Sem.*
A. R. C. New-York.

J. M. MATTHEWS, *Ass’t Professor*
Th. Sem. A. R. C. New-York.

To Correspondents, &c. Some delay in publishing the present number has taken place, owing to circumstances which the Editor hopes will not again occur.

A Review of *Drake’s picture of Cincinnati*, was prepared and in type for this number, but the unexpected extent of other articles has rendered it necessary to defer it to the next.

In our next number, a review of Major La Tour’s history of the War in Louisiana will be given. We hope also to have a Review of Mr. Pickering’s *Americanisms*, and Mr. Pitkin’s *Statistical tables*.

We hope we shall be favoured, by the author of the poetical tale, with frequent contributions. The gentleman also under the signature of W—r, who sent us a translation of an ode of Horace published in our last number, will we hope, become a constant correspondent. Amid the meretricious glare of modern poetry, the difficulty of translating an ode of Horace with simplicity, elegance and brevity, may be disregarded by common readers ; but those who have made the effort will fully appreciate it. We can assure the author of this translation, that it was admired by those whose taste made them competent to judge of it.

We offer the best apology in our power to our correspondents, for the following errata in our last number. In the sketches of Niagara scenery, p. 321. 17th line from the top, for *water the roses*, read *gather the roses*, p. 324. 23d line, for *their layers read thin layers*, p. 328 for *passed over*, read *poured over*. In the elegy to T. T. Randolph, line 13th, for *Heu ! frustra miseris*, read *Hæc frustra miseris*. 4th line from the bottom, for *finxisset*, read *finxisissent*, for *aere* read *ære*, last line, for *graterque* read *quaterque*.

NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

MISCELLANEOUS JOURNAL.

No. VIII.

JULY, 1816.

New-England's Memorial : or, a brief Relation of the most Memorable and Remarkable Passages of the Providence of God manifested to the Planters of New-England in America : with special Reference to the first Colony thereof, Called New-Plimouth. As also a Nomination of divers of the most Eminent Instruments deceased, both of Church and Common Wealth, improved in the first beginning and after progress of sundry of the respective Jurisdictions in those Parts ; in reference unto sundry Exemplary Passages of their Lives, and the time of their Death. Published for the Use and Benefit of present and future Generations. By Nathaniel Morton, Secretary to the Court for the Jurisdiction of New-Plimouth. Deut. 32. 10. He found him in a desert Land, in the waste howling wilderness he led him about ; he instructed him, he kept him as the Apple of his Eye. Jer. 2. 2. 3. I remember thee, the kindness of thy youth, the love of thine Espousals, when thou wentest after me in the wilderness, in a Land that was not sown, &c. Boston, Reprinted for Nicholas Boone, at the Sign of the Bible in Cornhill. 1721. pp. 248, 12mo.

THIS work, of which the copy that we have used is a reprint from an earlier edition in England, contains many minute facts about the first settlement of the Plymouth co-

lony. It shews the hardships and perils to which the "Fathers" were exposed ; and their invincible fortitude in bearing them. They depended from the first entirely on themselves, and when other food failed, subsisted on fish, and clams often formed a principal part of their food. Perhaps the incident of meeting with *Squanto*, who shewed them how to plant Indian corn, was a circumstance that saved the colony from being destroyed by famine. This *Squanto*, who remained a steady friend, spoke English to them on their arrival, to their great surprise ; he had been kidnapped some years before and carried to Lisbon to be sold ; he afterwards was taken up by Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and sent to America in one of his expeditions ; he ran away from those who brought him, and got to his home. This man was of the greatest service to the first settlers.

It is impossible, in perusing these early annals, not to perceive that the colony was preserved by the character and conduct of the first settlers, which were long and usefully maintained ; and the prevailing characteristics are still to be perceived in their descendants. Unfortunately, there are some persons who, in venerating their virtues, wish to impose the same habits and restraints on society, now, when every circumstance is different and adverse to it ; what was then wholesome discipline and salutary policy, would now be irksome tyranny and downright absurdity. They were few, exposed to every danger and privation, seeking not for wealth, but for subsistence and self-government, and the only solace in the trials they were exposed to, was in the practices of religion in the greatest austerity ; they were harsh, exclusive, and intolerant in their system ; yet bad as these qualities are now, they were useful then. They were often assailed and kept in commotion by some pitiful extravagance of doctrine ; which now would be disregarded, except by certain amateurs, and perish of course. But to them, any innovation, was a matter of the highest moment. It was either cut down at once, or ripened into importance by persecution. A single profligate character, was to them a serious annoyance. Oldham, Morton, who took possession of Mount Wollaston, and Sir Christopher Gardiner, were examples of this. Even the reveries of Mrs. Hutchinson, aided by Sir Henry Vane, threw the colony, after it had obtained considerable maturity, into very great agitation.

The first neat cattle, three heifers and a bull, which they possessed, came over in March, 1624, brought by Edward Winslow. In the year 1627, they made the first division of lands; previous to this time, they cultivated the ground in common.

“Likewise this year they began to make some distribution of Lands, having had hitherto but to every person one Acre allowed him as to propriety, besides their Homesteads, or Garden plats; the reason was that they might keep together, both for more safety and defence, and the better improvement of the general Employments; which condition of theirs brings to mind that which we may read in * *Pliny* of the *Romans* first beginnings in *Romulus* time, how every man contented himself with two Acres of Land, and had no more assigned them: and *Chap. 3.* *It was tho’t a great Reward to receive at the hands of the People of Rome a pint of Corn; and long after, the greatest Present given to a Captain that had got a Victory over their Enemies, was as much ground as he could Till in one day: and he was not accounted a good, but a dangerous man, that would not content himself with seven Acres of Land; as also how they did pound their Corn in Mortars, as these people were forced to do many years before they could get a Mill.*

“Notwithstanding as abovesaid, so small a portion of Land served them at the first, yet afterwards for divers Reasons moving thereunto, they were necessitated to lay out some larger Proportions to each person; yet resolving to keep a mean in distribution of Lands, as should not hinder their growth by others coming to them, and therefore accordingly allotted to every one in each Family Twenty Acres to be laid out, five Acres in breadth by the Water-side, and four Acres in length.”

The following extract is a part of the account of the conduct of *Thomas Morton*, after he had taken possession of the settlement at Mount Wollaston, (Braintree.)

“*After this they fell to great licentiousness of life, in all prophaneness, and the said Morton became Lord of misrule, and maintained (as it were) a school of Atheism, and*

* *Pliny* Lib. 18. Chap. 2.

after they had got some goods into their hands, and got much by trading with the Indians, they spent it as vainly, in quaffing and drinking both Wine and strong Liquors in great excess (as some have reported) Ten pounds worth in a Morning, setting up a May-pole, drinking and dancing about it, and frisking about it, like so many Fairies, or Furies, rather, yea, and worse practices, as if they had a new revived and celebrated the feast of the Roman's Goddess Flora, or the beastly practices of the mad Bacchanalians. The said Morton likewise to shew his Poetry, composed sundry Rythmes and Verses, some tending to lasciviousness, and others to the detraction and scandal of some persons names, which he affixed to his Idle or Idol May-pole; they changed also the name of their place, and instead of calling it Mount Wollaston, they called it the Merry Mount, as if this jollity would have lasted always. But this continued not long, for shortly after that Worthy Gentleman Mr. John Endicot, who brought over a Patent under the Broad Seal of England for the Government of the Massachusetts, visiting these parts, caused that May-pole to be cut down, and rebuked them for their prophaneness, and admonished them to look to it that they walked better; so the name was again changed, and called Mount Dagon."

When the church at Salem was settled, Mr. Higginson drew up the confession of faith, and the author says; "and because they foresaw the wilderness might be looked upon as a place of liberty, and therefore might in time be troubled with erroneous spirits, therefore they did put in one article into the Confession of faith, on purposes, about the duty and power of the magistrates in matters of religion." A little further on, we have an example of what this article was. Two persons, Mr. Samuel Brown and his brother, the one being a merchant and the other a lawyer, chose to preserve the form of worship of the English Church, and they and some others assembled together, and read the form of common prayer. The ministers having denounced them; "the Governor and Council, and the generality of the people, did well approve of the Ministers answer, and therefore finding those two brothers to be of high spirits, and their speeches and practices tending to

mutiny and faction, the Governour told them, that *New-England was no place for such as they*; and therefore he sent them both back to England at the return of the ships the same year; and though they breathed out threatnings against the Governour and ministers there, yet the Lord so disposed of all, that there was no further inconvenience followed upon it."

In the year 1635 a very remarkable storm occurred, and probable none of equal violence has been felt, till the gale of September last year. It is some consolation, that if the same interval takes place, it will be near two centuries before the country is visited by another.

"This Year, on Saturday the fifteenth day of *August*, was such a mighty storm of Wind and Rain, as none now living in these parts, either *English or Indian* had seen the like, being like unto those * *Hirracanes* or *Tuffins* that Writers mention to be sometimes in the *Indies*. It began in the morning a little before day, and grew not by degrees, but came with great violence in the beginning, to the great amazement of many; It blew down sundry Houses and uncovered divers others; divers Vessels were lost at sea in it, and many more in extream danger. It caused the Sea to swell in some places to the southward of *Plimouth*, as that it arose to twenty foot right up and down, and made many of the *Indians* to climb into Trees for their safety. It threw down all the Corn to the ground, which never rose more; the which through the mercy of God, it being near the harvest time, was not lost, but much the worse; and had the Wind continued without shifting, in likelihood it would have drowned some part of the Country. It blew down many hundred thousands of trees, turning up the stronger by the roots, and breaking the high Pine Trees and such like in the midst, and the tall young Oaks, and Walnut Trees of good bigness, were wound as Wyth by it, very strange and fearful to behold. It began in the South-east, and veered sundry ways, but the greatest force of it at *Plimouth*, was from the former quarter, it continued not in extremity above five or six hours ere the violence of it began to abate; the marks of it will remain this many years, in those parts were it was sorest: the Moon suffered a great Eclipse two nights after it."

* The great storm or Hirracane.

In the year 1638, three men were executed for murdering an Indian near Providence. The author observes that "some thought it great severity to hang three English for one Indian; but the more considerate will easily satisfy themselves for the legality of it, and indeed should we suffer their murderers to go unpunished, we might justly fear that God would suffer them to take a more sharp revenge." It was highly honourable to our forefathers, that such sound and high ideas of justice, prevailed at a time when prejudice degraded the Indians below the rank of human beings.

In the year 1658, there is the first mention of what the author styles "that pernicious sect called Quakers, and had not the Lord declared against them, by blasting their enterprizes and contrivements, so as they have withered away in a great measure," he thinks both "Church and Commonwealth would have been subverted." He concludes, "let our deliverance from so eminent a danger, be received amongst the principal of the Lord's gracious Providences and merciful loving kindness towards New-England; for the which let present and future generations celebrate his praises!" Such opinions and language are invaluable, and should be treasured up for the refutation of the narrow minded, and the alarmists, of our own times. He gives an account of each of the clergymen, who died within the period which he describes. These were many of them very learned men, and as our ancestors assimilated their condition to the theocracy of the Jews, their influence on society was paramount, and no doubt salutary. He gives one or two poetical tributes to the memory of each, but these rhymes are a very coarse kind of homespun. The book is an interesting one for every collection of American history.

A letter to a Noble Lord concerning the expedition to Canada. London printed. Boston, reprinted for Eleazer Phillips at his shop at the sign of the Eagle in Newbury Street, 1712.

This pamphlet was written by Mr. Dummer, to justify the people of New-England against the censures that were cast upon them for its failure. This is done calmly and satisfactorily. He gives the reasons why the handful of French in Canada had the power of annoying the Bri-

tish Colonies in the manner they did, and mentions one piece of deception practised on the Indians, which shews to what extravagant lengths the missionaries proceeded: "Tis by assistance of the Indian nations, who are blindly biggotted to their superstitions, and therefore entirely devoted to their interest; which the French daily strengthen, partly by marrying among them, and so accustoming them to their wild manner of life; but principally by having their missionaries ever with them, who teach them among other things, that the Virgin Mary was a *French* lady, and that her son the Saviour of the world was crucified by the English, and therefore to destroy them is highly meritorious."

An Addition to the present melancholy circumstances of the Province considered, March 6th, 1718, exhibiting considerations about labour, commerce, money, notes, or Bills of credit.

A project for the emission of an hundred thousand pounds of Province Bills, in such a manner to keep their credit up equal to silver, and to bring an hundred thousand pounds of silver money into the Country in a few years.

These two pamphlets treat upon the subjects of paper, specie, and importations, in a manner quite applicable to the present times. The latter proposes many false ideas, which were acted upon, and embarrassment and depreciation followed of course. The first of these is a very sensible, elementary treatise, on the subject of money and credit. To suppose five pounds in paper the same as five pounds in silver, the token the same as the thing itself, he thinks a doctrine of transubstantiation that no one can believe. If this be the test, however, of a good Catholick, that sect is extremely numerous in some parts of the United States.



FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

THE different publick Inspectors of Massachusetts now make annual returns into the Secretary's office, of the respective articles inspected by them. The following minutes are the totals of those returns. That of Hops has not been received.

NAILS	363 Casks first sort weight	103,378 lbs.			
	151 do. second do.	39,882			
	20 do. third and refuse	5409	148,669 lbs.		
POT AND PEARL ashes.		T	wt.	qs.	lbs.
Potash	3844 Casks containing	703	17	0	20
Pearlash	5489	851	18	2	9
Total		9333	1555	15	3 4

No returns were received from the Deputy Inspectors at Newburyport or Bath.

BUTTER AND LARD.

Lard	8165 Casks First quality containing	313,607 lbs.
do.	260 do. second do.	9519
do.	65 do. third do.	2591
Total		8480 do. 325,717
Butter	8337 do. First quality containing	216,220
	2803 do. second do.	85,619
	224 do. third do.	7256
Total		11364 309,095

BEEF AND PORK.

Beef	Mess.	8589 Barrels	
	No. 1.	17,063 do.	
	No. 2.	808 do.	
	No. 3.	2495 do.	Total barrels 36235.
	Mess	1109 half barrels.	
	No. 1.	178 do.	Total half barrels 1288.
Pork, Bone Middlings		279	
	Navy Mess	787	
	No. 1.	3745	
	No. 2.	1123	
	No. 3.	391	Total barrels 6325.
		758	Half barrels.

PICKLED FISH.

Salmon bbls.	118
Mackerel	1441
Shad	8
Herring	440
Cod	202
Alewives	10
Haddock, &c.	124

SMOKED FISH.

Herrings	6788 boxes.
Alewives	85 do.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

IN one of your late reviews, I read with much pleasure a letter written in 1790 by the Hon. J. Adams, late President of the United States, to the late Dr. Price, on the subject of the French revolution.

Looking over some old newspapers it was with increased satisfaction, that I found another letter, from the same venerable character, written about that time, and addressed to the honourable Samuel Adams, on the same subject. The concluding paragraph displays the wonderful sagacity and foresight of this great statesman. Your causing it to be inserted in your work will oblige,

Yours, &c.

NOVANGLIA.

New-York, September 12, 1790.

DEAR SIR,

UPON my return from Philadelphia, to which beloved city I have been for the purpose of getting an house to put my head in next winter, I had the pleasure of receiving your favour of the second of this month.*

The sight of our old liberty hall, and of several of our old friends, had brought your venerable idea to my mind, and continued it there a great part of the last week, so that a letter from you on my arrival, seemed but in continuation. I am much obliged to the confidential friend for writing the short letter you dictated, and shall beg a continuation of good offices.†

Capt. **** whom I know very well, has my hearty good wishes. I shall give your letter and his to the Secretary of the Treasury, the duty of whose department it is to receive and examine all applications of the kind. Applications will probably be made in behalf of the officers who served the last war in the navy, and they will be likely to have the preference to all others; but Capt. ****'s application shall nevertheless be presented, and have a fair chance.

My family, as well as myself, are, I thank God, in good health, and in as good spirits as the prospect of a troublesome

* Congress had voted to remove from New-York to Philadelphia.

† Governour Adams was at that time obliged to employ an Amanuensis.

removal will admit. Mrs. A—— desires her particular regards to your lady and yourself.

What my old friend, is this world about to become? Is the millenium commencing? Are the kingdoms of it about to be governed by reason? Your Boston town-meetings, and our Harvard College, have set the universe in motion. Every thing will be pulled down. So much seems certain—but what will be built up. Are there any principles of political architecture? What are they? Were Voltaire and Rousseau masters of them? Are their disciples acquainted with them? Locke taught them principles of liberty, but I doubt very much whether they have not yet to learn the principles of government. *Will the struggle in Europe be any thing more than a change of imposters and impositions?*

With great esteem and sincere affection, I am, my dear Sir, your friend and servant,

JOHN ADAMS.

Extracts from Chateaubriand's Recollections, a work recently published.

“I have still a recollection of the happiness which I experienced during a night passed amidst dreary deserts, when my wood fire was half extinguished, my guide asleep, and my horses grazing at a distance.—I have still a recollection, I say, of the happiness which I experienced when I heard the mingled melody of the winds and waters, as I reclined upon the earth, deep in the bosom of the forest.

“These murmurs, at one time feeble, at another more loud, increasing and decreasing every instant, made me occasionally start; and every tree was to me a sort of lyre, from which the winds extracted strains conveying ineffable delight.

“At the present day I perceive that I am less sensible to these charms of nature, and I doubt whether the cataract of Niagara would cause the same degree of admiration in my mind, which it formerly inspired.

“When one is very young, nature is eloquent in silence, because there is a superabundance in the heart of man. All his futurity is before him (if my Aristarchus will allow me to use this expression) he hopes to impart his sensations to the

world, and feeds himself with a thousand chimeras ; but at a more advanced age, when the prospect, which we had before us, passes into the rear, and we are undeceived as to a host of illusions, then nature, left to herself, becomes colder and less eloquent, '*Les jardins parlent peu.*' To interest us at this period of life, it is necessary that we have the additional pleasure of society, for we are become less satisfied with ourselves.

"This passage reminds me, that one night, when I was lying in a cottage, during my American travels, I heard an extraordinary sort of murmur from a neighbouring lake. Conceiving this noise to be the fore-runner of a storm, I went out of the hut to survey the heavens. Never did I see a more beautiful night, or one in which the atmosphere was purer. The lake's expanse was tranquil, and reflected the light of the moon, which shone on the projecting points of the mountains, and the forests of the desert. An Indian canoe was traversing the waves in silence. The noise which I heard, proceeded from the flood tide of the lake, which was beginning, and which sounded like a sort of groaning as it rose among the rocks. I had left the hut with an idea of a tempest,—let any one judge of the impression, which this calm and serene picture must have made upon me ;—it was like an enchantment.

"When I was at the Cataract of Niagara, the Indian ladder being broken, which had been there, I wished, in spite of my guide's representations, to descend to the bottom of the fall by means of a rock, the craggy points of which projected ; it was about two hundred feet high, and I made the attempt, in spite of the roaring cataract, and frightful abyss, which gaped beneath me ; my head did not swim, and I descended about forty feet ; but here the rock became smooth and vertical, nor were there any longer roots or fissures for my feet to rest upon. I remained hanging all my length by my hands, neither able to reascend nor proceed, feeling my fingers open by degrees from the weight of my body, and considering death inevitable. There are few men who have, in the course of their lives, passed two such minutes, as I experienced over the yawning horrors of Niagara. My hands at length opened, and I fell ; by most extraordinary good fortune, I alighted on the naked rock. It was hard enough to have dashed me in pieces, and yet I did not feel much injured. I was within half an inch of the abyss, yet I had not rolled into it ; but when the cold water began to penetrate to my skin, I perceiv-

ed that I had not escaped so easily as I first imagined. I felt an insupportable pain in my left arm ; I had broken it above the elbow. My guide, who observed me from above, and to whom I made signs, ran to look for some savages, who with much trouble drew me up with birch cords, and carried me to their habitations.

“ This was not the only risk I ran at the Niagara ; on arriving at the Cataract, I alighted, and fastened my horse’s bridle round my arm. As I leaned forward to look down, a rattle snake moved in the neighbouring bushes. The horse took fright, reared on his hind legs, and approached the edge of the precipice ; I could not disengage my arm from the bridle, and the animal with increasing alarm drew me after him. His feet were already on the point of slipping over the brink of the gulph, and he was kept from destruction by nothing but the reins. My doom seemed to be fixed, when the animal, astonished at the new dangers which he all at once perceived, made a final effort, and sprung ten feet from the edge of the precipice.”

“ Let us now examine the accusations urged against *men of letters*, most of which appear to me unfounded ; mediocrity often consoles itself by the calumny. It is urged, that *men of letters are not fit for the transactions of business*. Strange idea ! that the genius requisite to produce the Spirit of Laws, was not sufficient to conduct the office of a minister. What ! cannot those who sound so ably the depths of the human heart, unravel the intrigues arising from the passions around them ? The more we know men, the less are we to be considered capable of governing them ?—but this is a sophism which all experience contradicts. The two greatest statesmen of antiquity, Demosthenes, and still more Cicero, were *men of letters* in the most rigid sense of the term. Never, perhaps, did a finer literary genius than Cæsar exist, and it appears that this descendant of Anchises and Venus, understood tolerably well how to conduct business. We may cite in England, Sir Thomas More, Lords Clarendon, Bacon, and Bolingbroke ; in France, M. M. de l’Hopital, Lamoignon, d’Aguesseau, Malesherbes, and the greater part of those ministers who have been furnished by the church.—Nothing could persuade me that Bossuet’s was not a head capable

of conducting a kingdom, nor that the severe and judicious Boileau would not have made an excellent administrator."

[The foundation of a splendid edifice, destined as a College for the London Institution, has recently been laid in Moorfields. On this occasion an entertainment was given, and the following address delivered to the company by Mr. Butler. As some of its remarks will apply to this country, we have selected it for that reason, in addition to its intrinsic merit.]

My Lord Mayor, My Lord Carrington, President of the London Institution, and Gentlemen :

The Board of Managers of the London Institution, having desired me, on your return from the ceremony which you have just witnessed, to address to you some words on the advantages which Science and Commerce derive from each other, I have to request your attention for a few minutes, to what I shall offer to your consideration on this subject. But I beg leave to premise what I shall say upon it, by a short account of the formation of the Institution, and the views of those with whom the design of it originated.

About ten years ago, some Gentlemen of high rank in commerce, and distinguished by their enlarged and cultivated understandings, projected the Institution, on whose account you have this day been convened.

Considering the mercantile eminence of their country, persuaded that whatever increases the splendour, increases equally the strength and activity of commerce, and contemplating the example of almost every other European nation, they thought it due to the dignity and glory of the empire, that her commercial metropolis should be graced by a Literary and Scientific Institution, on a liberal and extensive plan. They judged that such an establishment would bring Science and Commerce into contact, and that by their approximation, each would draw forth and invigorate whatever there might be of latent energy or power in the other.

Under this impression, they submitted their views to the consideration of their fellow citizens, and solicited the co-operation of their munificence. The design was universally

approved, and a subscription of above 70,000*l.* immediately raised, within the walls of the city of London and her commercial environs. The portion of land which has just been honoured with your presence, was purchased from the Corporation of the City of London, with the view of erecting upon it a suitable building, adapted to the purpose of the Institution. I am authorized to add, that the Gentlemen who treated with the Corporation for the purchase of it, speak in high terms of the liberality of their proceedings.

Presuming on this liberality, and addressing myself to it, may I, an unauthorized individual, intimate an humble wish (but a wish generally entertained,) that some arrangement may be made with the Corporation of the City of London, by which the Gresham Lecture shall be attached to the London Institution; and, in conformity to Sir Thomas Gresham's wise and beneficial intentions, thus made really and actively conducive to the general diffusion of Science and Literature. This must be the wish of every one to whom these are dear, or who reverences the memory of the venerable founder of the lectures, or feels the respect always due to the ashes, which still speak of the illustrious dead,

That the *union of Science and Commerce* produces publick and individual happiness, and elevates in the rank of nations the countries that are blessed with them, would, if it required proof, be better shown by history than argument.

The spacious provinces which now compose the Ottoman Empire, were once the seat of Commerce. Then they were dignified by wisdom and valour, and for a long time, were the fairest portion of the Christian world. Of their Science and Commerce they were deprived by their invaders, and, in consequence, they sunk into a state of abject misery, which no tongue can adequately describe. Large territories dispeopled, goodly cities made desolate, sumptuous buildings became ruins, glorious temples subverted or prostituted, true religion discountenanced and oppressed, all nobility extinguished, violence and rapine exulting over all, and leaving no security except to abject minds and unlooked for poverty. Such is the state of the country, which hath lost her Commerce and Science. Would you behold a country in full possession of them. Contemplate your own! The number and magnificence of her

cities, the high state of her agriculture, the activity of her manufactures, the easy intercourse between one part of the nation, however distant, and every other, her grand foundations both for learning and charity, the graceful dignity and conciliating ease of high life, the countless decencies of the middle ranks, the cheerful industry of the lower, the general veneration for the Constitution, the general obedience to law, the general devotion to their country ; such is England ! If it be inquired, by what means she hath attained this height of glory and prosperity—much, it must be answered, is owing to that happy union of Science and Commerce, for which in every part of her history she has been eminently distinguished.

Now, Science and Commerce are mutually dependent. Each assists the other, and each receives from the other a liberal return.

That *the commercial success of a nation tends directly to promote Literature, the Sciences, and the Arts*, admits of no doubt. On this part of my subject, I shall do little more than appeal to your own observations. In the course of the last summer, many of my hearers have visited the scene of the most glorious and eventful battle that modern history has to record. I request them to recollect the long line of magnificent towns in Belgium, through which they passed in their road to the memorable spot, or on their return, the numerous publick edifices of exquisite and costly architecture which they observed in them, and the numberless paintings and works in marble, gold, silver, iron, and bronze, with which these abound ! I beg them to recollect, that during two hundred years, all these cities have been in a state of decline. They may then judge what they were in the day of their prosperity. Now every thing I have mentioned was raised or collected by the fostering hand of commerce. For, before the imprudent conduct of the Dukes of Burgundy drove commerce to Amsterdam, the Netherlands were her favourite seat ; and all these monuments of Art and Science owed their existence to the commercial acquisitions and well directed munificence of the Burghers of Bruges, Ghent, Antwerp, Brussels and Louvaine. The Architecture, Painting, and Sculpture, which adorn the cities between the Alps and Upper Italy, equally owe their existence to the Burghers of Lombardy. Had it not been

for Commerce, Venice would never have had the School of Painting for which she is so illustrious. Had not the family of Medici, afterwards allied to so many royal houses, and the parent of so many sovereign Princes, been successful merchants, half, perhaps, of the precious remains of antiquity which we now possess, would not have reached us. Far be it from us to deny or undervalue the obligations, which Learning and Science, owe the monarchs of the earth, or to the ranks which immediately approach them. To these much, very much, do Learning and Science owe; but were they not themselves continually enriched by the commercial part of the community, scanty indeed would be their means of remunerating, or encouraging either the Artist or the Scholar.

On the other hand, *Science has ever been auxiliary to Commerce*. Not a step can Commerce safely take, either in her most simple or her most complex operations, unless the Sciences of Numbers and Measure attend her. Nor should it be forgotten that many even of those rules,

“ Which boys can read, and girls can understand,”

are the result of most profound and laborious investigation, and that the midnight lamp has, over and over again, been lighted to the scientific men by whom they were discovered.

To Navigation, Commerce almost wholly owes her existence. From the felling of the tree to the launch of the ship, and from the launch of the ship to her arrival in port, every thing now appears to be reduced to rule, and the rules appear so simple in their theory and so easy in their application, that they seem to be carried into effect by a kind of intuitive readiness, and a process almost mechanical. But to form these rules, apparently so simple and so easy, the minds of scientific men had been employed for ages on the most extensive and abstruse researches. It is literally true that, in the circles of Art and Science, there is scarcely one which has not been brought into the service of the ship-builder, or of the mariner. In those lines of Trade and Commerce which are employed on the metallick productions, or forming or compounding colours, there scarcely is a process which the workman does not owe to Chemistry, and which it did not cost the Chemist the toil of years to discover. When the drainer of a marsh uses his spiral screw,

he avails himself, of a process, the discovery of which was thought to do honour to one of the most renowned of the ancient Mathematicians. When the land surveyor measures a field, he does it by rules laid down in a small Greek book, which appeared two hundred and forty years before Christ. To come to our own country, and nearer to our own time, the steam Engine, now applied to so many useful purposes, and every day discovering new powers, was one of the inventions which, in the reign of Charles the First, employed the learned leisure of the Marquis of Worcester. To the divine mind of Sir Isaac Newton we principally owe the quadrant, which, with Hadley's name, is now in the hands of every mariner.

But to prove the general utility of Science to Commerce, it is unnecessary to travel back to the ancient history of other countries, or to the former history of our own. At the instant I am speaking, Science is advancing towards us with an invention, which, to the latest period, will prove incalculably beneficial to humanity in general, and to Commerce in particular. You have frequently read in your newspapers of the horrid effects of the firing of a mine. A very recent paper has given an account of such a disaster. Now within these few weeks, one of those men, the *homines centenarii*, Scaliger called them, who exist but one in a century, men who elevate the country in which they are born, and even the age in which they live, our illustrious countryman, Sir Humphrey Davy, has discovered a process, by which this evil principle in nature is absolutely subdued, and all possibility of danger from it is altogether removed.

A stronger proof of the utility of Science cannot be required. Now, perhaps, among those who frequent or who may soon frequent your library, or your chambers of experiment, there may be some whose bosoms are pregnant with celestial fire, and who only want the facilities of acquiring knowledge, which these means afford, to become, like that great man, leaders in Science and Benefactors to humanity, but who, without these, would live and die unknowing and unknown. What a satisfaction it must be to the friends of the London Institution, to call forth the energies of such a man!

Thus in every age has science been subservient to Commerce. When they are separated, Science loses all her utility; Commerce all her dignity. When they are united, each

grows with the growth and strengthens with the strength of the other, and their powers appear unlimited. They ascend the Heavens, they delve the depths of the earth, and fill every climate that encourages them, with Industry, Energy, Wealth, Honour, and Happiness.

These being the happy effects of their union, must it not be the desire of all who wish well to either, and of all true and enlightened friends of their country, that every measure should be adopted, by which it can be cemented and invigorated? Permit me to add, that should science ever be neglected in this country, while encouraged by others, the Commercial part of the community would, in all probability, suffer soonest and most from the consequences.

In a conversation which a very inveterate and acute, and once powerful enemy of England, held with a friend of mine at Elba, he spoke of her in terms of respect, and even admiration; but said, "the term of the transcendent glory of England must now approach near its end. Years ago she took a spring, and left the nations of the earth at a distance behind her; they will soon take the spring, and, not having your burthens on Commerce and Arts, they will pass you." Vain be the augury! We trust, and we feel it will. But were there the slightest grounds for it, one powerful means of defeating it would most assuredly be, to promote the union of Science and Commerce; to stimulate Science to every exertion likely to prove serviceable to the Commercial Interests of the community; to furnish Commerce with the means of affording to Science and her followers, every facility of research and experiment; to invite Science within your walls, and to establish on a wise, and enlarged, and a dignified plan, on a plan suited to the high character of a British merchant, such Institutions as that which the ceremony of this day has placed under the protection of the City of London, and her opulent, honourable, and discerning sons.

FROM AN ENGLISH MAGAZINE.

Miss O'Neill.

Miss O'Neill may be said to have been educated, not only for, but on the stage, having come out at the age of twelve

years, at the Drogheda Theatre, of which her father was manager. Though so young, she exhibited great capability, and was very soon in possession of the most important parts, both in comedy and tragedy. The more northern theatres were at that time, under separate management, being directed by Mr. Talbot, who, we believe, performed some nights, a few years since, on the London boards. Belfast, long considered as the Athens of Ireland, being at that time his headquarters, he was prompted to engage Miss O'Neill, at a first rate salary. He was amply remunerated for this liberality, by her exertions in Belfast, Newry, Derry, &c. Her rising fame soon spread to the Irish metropolis, where the theatre as well as the manager's purse, was at a very low ebb, for at one house Henry Johnson had been obliged, in 1810, to lower the prices; whilst at Crow-street, the receipts had so completely failed, that the manager was forced to look for new recruits, and to find out novelty at least, if he could not procure excellence. Even the exertions of Mrs. Bartley, then Miss Smith, failed to fill the house; and in August, 1811, Incedon's benefit was unproductive, facts which can only be accounted for by the distresses of the time.

It was at this period that Miss O'Neill entered into an engagement with Mr. Jones, and appeared, strange as it may seem, in the character of *Widow Cheerly*. The applause that accompanied this *debut* was universal, and followed by crowded houses, who considered her fame as established in the first walk of comick characters. The Dublin publick were however even more astonished, when a short time afterwards, the illness or inattention of another actress brought her out as *Juliet*. The best testimony of publick opinion may perhaps be drawn from her overflowing benefit, on the 27th May, 1811, when she performed *Lady Townley* to Conway's Lord Townley, with *Maria*, in the farce of the *Citizen*. To those who have only seen Miss O'Neill in tragick characters, it may seem strange that she should have depended upon her comick powers for a full house; but it may seem stranger, when we enumerate a few of her characters during that season, such as the *Unknown Female* in the *Foundling of the Forest*, *Catherine*, in the *Taming of the Shrew*, for Mrs. Cook's benefit, to Conway's *Petruchio*, together with *Desdemona*, for Conway's benefit, when he first appeared as *Othello*, in Dublin, soon

after which she undertook the arduous task of *Lady Macbeth*, in all of which she met with unrivalled success.

It is not our intention to pursue this delightful actress through all her cast of early parts, but we cannot refrain from noticing the criticisms of that day, in which it was acknowledged that, with the exception of Miss Smith, she threw every female performer, who for a long time had been seen on the Dublin stage, to an immeasurable distance, so that, whilst the absence of the one was lamented, ample consolation was felt from the presence of the other.

"In Miss Smith," said the Hibernian critick, "we perceive studied effects of art—in Miss O'Neill, we feel the genuine effects of nature. Where terrour is to be raised, the first is pre-eminent; where pity should be excited, the latter is more impressive." After some further due praise to the excellencies of Mrs. Bartley, it was added, "that Miss O'Neill resembled the sun shining through April clouds, when that luminary bursts forth with wondrous splendour, after the atmosphere is cooled and refreshed by a fructifying shower," and also, that "her representations excited the idea of Iris, extending her radiant bow in the heavens, a certain presage of approaching fineness."

After three years of constant applause, Miss O'Neill directed her steps towards the summit of histrionick exertion, being engaged for the season of 1814 at Covent Garden, where she made her first *entrée* as *Juliet*, on the 6th of October, being at once recognized as the first Hibernian actress, who had joined transcendant beauty with rare histrionick talent, since the time of Mrs. Woffington.

We know not if it is true, that the dramatick taste of the city of Cork is so low, that only a month before, Miss O'Neill had been playing there to empty benches, as was then asserted; but our readers may all remember that her first appearance on the Covent Garden boards was hailed with repeated shouts and peals of applause, vindicating the taste and judgment of a London audience, whilst she did honour to herself in a most remarkable and commendable diffidence, evidently the result of modest merit, instead of that kind of stage effect, which has so often exhibited to us some *good ACTING*, on the part of the apparently timid *debutante*.

London audiences had for some time been accustomed to see *Juliet* performed, without that engaging softness, which

forms a most prominent feature of the character ; it is not surprising, therefore, that their feelings were awakened, to find this young and lovely actress performing with a softness of look and manner most inimitable, avoiding not only the excess of emotion, but also the vehemence of declamation, too often substituted for virgin fears, and all the delicacy of the chastest affection. But it is needless for us to expatiate on her powers of expression, in her indignation at the reproaches cast on *Romeo*, in her despair at his banishment, in her calm contempt of the treachery of the nurse, or in the fortitude of mind displayed, whilst preparing to encounter temporary death, with all its attendant horrors. We all remember that she performed that arduous character for six nights, to overflowing houses, when the pit and gallery were always crowded before the curtain rose, and the boxes filled before the end of the first act ; and when her entrance each night was marked by three distinct rounds of applause, five rounds of which actually hailed her, when, on the 13th of the same month, she came out in *Belvidera*.

On that occasion, she scorned to adopt that whining which too often marks the character ; nor did she adopt ranting even in her madness—but to describe is impossible ; and in that part, as well as in all others, she must be seen and heard to be fully appreciated.

That gratification was indeed afforded to the publick at large, by a summer-trip after the close of the London season, in which she seems to have made rapid histrionick progress ; for, not to mention performances in the north, we find her performing *Jane Shore* for her own benefit, on the 19th of September, 1815, at Plymouth, and on the 26th of the same month making her first appearance at Brighton, in *Mrs. Haller*, when the publick curiosity was so great, that the manager was even tempted to raise his prices of the boxes from five to seven shillings, and the pit from half a crown to London prices also, and that to crowded houses ; every night of her appearance all other publick amusements being totally deserted, and Parr and the evening concerts entirely forgotten.

On the first of October, Miss O'Neill concluded her country excursion at Brighton, after netting, as we have been told, near eight thousand pounds, and on the ensuing night she made her first appearance this season in the metropolis, as before, in the character of *Juliet*, when considerable improvement

was discovered in her, by those who before had thought her all perfection. Her voice was found to have acquired more depth and melody, and in short, there was a universal acknowledgement of her powers by an audience who received her, on coming forward, with the most ardent tribute of applause, which she met with such graceful thanks, that several minutes elapsed amidst the loudest peals, before the performance could proceed.

Even in her acting, in some passages, there was evident improvement; and it was well observed that she had discovered the true secret of bestowing superiour interest on that character, by rendering it less declamatory, less exaggerated, and therefore more natural. Her awaking from the tomb was—but we will not hazard a description of that which beggared all delineation!

Who that saw her (*Jane Shore*,) a few evenings afterwards, can forget the skill with which she rose in every scene? or who can forget the impression made by seeing her and Kemble together, for the first time, in the *Stranger*, towards the end of the month? It was indeed a subject of regret, that the cast of the play brought them not together until the close; but it has been more a subject of regret that the illness of that admired actor, immediately put a stop to the pleasure anticipated in future representations.

Can it be necessary for us to close this biography, with criticism either dramattick or personal? need we expatiate on her youth, beauty, elegance of form and manners? on her harmony of voice, her justness of comprehension, on the expression of her countenance, or the exquisite feeling with which she verifies every scene? need we point out the general effect resulting from the heightening of the illusion, by that cast of pensiveness which shines through the transparent fairness of her complexion; a pensiveness that gives effect not only to all the softer feelings of love, but also to the sterner passions which she has sometimes to express, without forbidding us to hope the presence of the most cheerful smiles, when circumstances may induce her to treat a London audience with a display of her comick powers?

This we may say, that Miss O'Neill is no copyist; she never yet has seen Mrs. Siddons; and yet, if we were to indulge in a parallel with that great actress, though there might be a difference of powers, we trust there would be no inequality.

Miss O'Neill's greatest charms certainly arise from nature, but much also evidently depends upon good sense, since we often find her striking out new beauties ; and one observation we will hazard, in comparison with all other actresses, that during her performance, we most particularly lose the consciousness of personal existence—it is not Miss O'Neill we see, but the character she is unfolding—our judgment even yields to our feelings, and criticism drops the pen !

Origin of the phrase, “Benefit of Clergy.”

When the northern barbarians seized on the Roman conquests in Europe, the remains of literature which those brave people had diffused among their vassals, became obliterated ; and a universal darkness overspread the human mind.

The priests were the only people who knew any thing of learning ; and that was confined to the outlines of the Aristotelean philosophy, and Latin of the most barbarous sort.

Lord Littleton says, that during the reign of Henry II. the clergy had so far discouraged the study of letters, among the laity, that the nobility were made to believe that the only pursuits becoming their station were those of a military kind ; and thus warlike exercises and a spirit of chivalry, took place of all those intellectual pleasures which arise from an acquaintance with the muses. But however the nobility might despise what they did not understand ; it was natural that somewhat more than ordinary respect should be paid to those, who, in intellectual knowledge, surpassed the rest of mankind. The clergy, particularly the monks, took advantage of this, and turned it to their own account. Wherefore it became a principle in the common law of England, that no *clerk*, i. e. *priest*, should be tried for any thing criminal by the civil power.

In the reign last mentioned, this abuse had been carried to such enormous height, that a regulation was necessary to be made ; which was done in the famous council or parliament of Clarendon. Notwithstanding the salutary acts which were on this occasion passed into laws, the absence of Richard I. from his people, the pusillanimous conduct of John and his son, Henry III. furnished the monks with a second opportunity of establishing their own authority, at the expense of the civil

power. They now procured it to be enacted, that *if any person was tried for felony and found guilty, IF HE COULD READ, he was to be exempted from punishment.* This was the result of the most artful and deliberate consideration on the part of the clergy, wherein they appear to have had two things in view, highly beneficial to themselves.

First. The engrossing to their own order all those who had acquired the least knowledge of letters.

Secondly. The benefit that would accrue to themselves by teaching prisoners to read.

Of this we have a convincing proof, by the statute 22, Edward III. cap. 4. which forbids, under very severe penalties, either clerks or others to teach a prisoner to read.

This practice had now got to such an enormous height, that few delinquents could be brought to justice; and, had it not been for the unhappy divisions which arose between the families of York and Lancaster in the succeeding century, perhaps the domineering power of the clergy would have been entirely crushed! but at that time, all things were reduced to a state of confusion; and ignorance, which had long hood-winked the understandings of mankind, became more deeply rooted than ever.

In the succeeding reign, the invention of printing led men into a free inquiry concerning disputed points, and the exercise of a more just discrimination as to matters of right and wrong, which proved ultimately successful in bringing about our happy Reformation.

As the knowledge of literature increased, the power of the clergy gradually declined; and by statute 2nd. Edw. VI. it was enacted, that no person convicted of manslaughter should claim the benefit of clergy, unless he was either a peer of the realm, or a clerk in priest's orders; nor could the convict be exempted from being burnt in the hand, unless he produced the patent of his nobility, or certificate of his ordination.

Thus we find the *benefit of the Clergy* in some manner abridged: but still it was continued in favour of those who were guilty of common felony, &c. until the 9th of James I. when it was entirely taken away from those delinquents, and provision made that no person should claim it more than once. When a prisoner claims his benefit of clergy, the form of proceeding was as follows:—The ordinary gave

the prisoner at the bar a Latin book, in a black Gothick character, to read a verse or two, and if the ordinary pronounced, *legit ut clericus*, the offender was only burnt with a hot iron on the brawn of the left thumb, and discharged ; otherwise, he suffered the penalty of the law.

When our statute laws say that an offender shall suffer death without *benefit of clergy*, many people imagine that it implies he shall not have the assistance of a spiritual guide, but no such thing is intended. The meaning of the word is simply this, that the culprit shall not be entitled to any of those privileges formerly enjoyed by the clergy, and his being able to read or write, shall not in any manner exempt him from punishment.

The title "benefit of Clergy," was never known in any other European nations ; and the reason assigned for it by Cowell,* is, that their laws were mostly borrowed from the Justinian institutions, whereas, those of England were founded on ancient custom.

Perhaps, still less understood than the above, is the word "CULPRIT," which originated also in our Courts of justice. How many have tortured their brains with the derivation of this word, which is clearly a corruption of the French *qu'il paroît* ? a remaining vestige of the Gallick tongue, in which our law proceedings were anciently written. The officer of the court says to the prisoner, "Guilty or not Guilty," if the prisoner says "Guilty," his confession is recorded ; if he answers "Not Guilty," the officer says "*Culprit*," whereas he ought to say "*Qu'il paroît*," i. e. make it appear, or let it appear that thou art not guilty. *Culprit* is evidently a corruption of *qu'il paroît*, which is pure French, and bids the prisoner plead for himself and make his innocence appear. Thus hath this word changed the legal sense or true reading, and a false one, which ought to be exploded, hath been admitted.

European Magazine.

[The following extracts, copied from the Literary Panorama, are taken from Sir John Malcom's account of Persia.]

"The men of wandering tribes delight to tell or listen to romantick tales ; some of them not only make themselves masters of this art, but learn to recite verses, particularly

* *Institutiones juris Anglicani.*

those of Ferdosi. A great person who has cultivated this talent, enjoys a great share of the respect of his associates who frequently call upon him to amuse an idle hour, by transporting his hearers into the regions of fancy, or to excite their minds to deeds of valour, by repeating lines which celebrate the renown of their ancestors.

“It has been already stated, that the women of the tribes of Persia, who dwell in tents, are seldom veiled; their usual occupations have also been described. They are more respected than the females who dwell in cities, because they are more useful to the community, of which they form a part. They not only share the bed, but the fatigues and dangers of their husbands, and the masculine habits which they acquire, do not please, for they seem suited to their condition of life. If they are not of high rank, they perform all the domestick and menial offices of their own home; and strangers, who visit their houses and tents, are certain to receive the kindest and most hospitable welcome from them. But there is nothing in the manner of these women that can be mistaken: it is fearless, but not forward; and evidently proceeds from the consciousness of security, not the absence of shame. Though in general their complexion is dark and sun-burnt, they have sometimes, when young, a considerable share of beauty: a sense of their free condition gives lustre to their eyes, and they often add to fine features, a very graceful form. But among the lower orders of this class, their beauty is soon destroyed by hard labour, and continual exposure to the climate.

“A Persian gentleman,* remarkable for his polished manners and the gaiety of his disposition, describes his entertainment by the females of one of these tribes, in a very natural and characteristick manner. ‘When I arrived,’ he observes, ‘at the village of Sennah,† which is inhabited by the Turkish tribes of Khuzâl Affshâr, I was invited to take up my abode in the house of one of the chiefs of the latter, and received, while I stayed, the greatest attention from all his family; the ladies, who, according to custom, were unveiled, were particu-

* Mahomed Hussein Khan, son of the late Medhi Ali Khan, who was sent by the government of Bombay, on a mission to the Court of Persia, in A. D. 1798.

† This village is in Irak. The name is the same as the capital of Ardelan.

larly kind ; the daughter of my host, who was about fifteen years of age, was more beautiful than I can express. When I said that I was thirsty, she ran and brought me a cup of pure water. It was a draught from the fountain of life, brought by an angel ; but it increased, instead of extinguishing the flame which her bright, dark eyes had kindled in my breast.* After describing the pain which it gave him to depart from this dwelling, without daring to show, even by look, the nature of that passion which he entertained for this young beauty, he very sensibly observes :—‘ A vain and uninformed man might have mistaken the manner of my fair cup-bearer ; but I had experience of these rustick ladies, and well knew that nothing was meant, but that kindness and hospitality with which they treat all strangers who visit their tents or houses. I believe,’ he concludes, ‘ they are virtuous beyond all other women in Persia ; and the man who should even attempt seduction, would be sacrificed to the implacable honour of their male relations.’† The habits of these females fit them for the scenes to which they are occasionally exposed. When riding near a small encampment of the Affshâr families, I expressed my doubts to a Persian noble, who was with me, regarding their reputed boldness and hardihood, and particularly of their skill in horsemanship. He immediately called to a young woman of a handsome appearance, and asked her in Turkish, if she was not a soldier’s daughter ?’ She said she was. ‘ And you expect to be a mother of soldiers,’ was the next observation. She smiled. ‘ Mount that horse,’ said he, pointing to one with a bridle, but without a saddle, ‘ and shew this European envoy the difference between a girl of a tribe, and a citizen’s daughter.’ She instantly sprung upon the animal, and, setting off at full speed, did not stop till she had reached the summit of a small hill in the vicinity, which was covered with loose stones : when there, she waved her hand over her head, and then came down the hill at the same rate she had ascended. Nothing could be more dangerous than the ground over which she galloped ; but she appeared quite fearless, and seemed delighted at having had an opportunity of vindicating the females of her tribe, from the reproach of being like the ladies of cities.

* Mahomed Hussein Khan’s MS. Journal.

† Ibid.

“The poverty and usages of the wandering tribes, often prevent the men from marrying even the number of wives allowed by the law. Many of them have only one ; and unless she is old, barren, or unfit to work, they do not marry another. The reason is, that they can seldom afford to support more than one wife ; and from the liberty which the females enjoy, their quarrels, where there are several in a family, would be seriously embarrassing ; and marriage, which is considered as one of the chief bonds of union between the men of a tribe, would become a constant source of discord and contention. The practice of hiring wives for a certain period, which prevails in the cities and towns of Persia, is held in abhorrence by the females of tribes, and they have frequently been known to attack priests in the most violent manner, whom they believed to have sanctioned a usage which they deem so degrading. Though we may conclude from what has been stated, that these women enjoy more freedom and consideration than the other females of Persia, they are still remote from that rank which has been assigned to the sex, among the civilized nations of Europe ; they toil, while their lord-like husband spends his hours in indolence, or amusement, and are regarded more as servants than as associates. If a man of a wandering tribe has not so many wives and slaves, as the religion he professes permits, or as his brother Mahomedan of the city, it is merely as has been stated, because his poverty, or the condition of the society to which he belongs, limits his desires. The moment that his situation alters, he is prompt to riot in every species of dissipation ; and the partner, who more than shares his toils, has no chance of an equal participation in any good fortune that may attend him. If he is raised to a high station, he deems an increased indulgence of his sensual appetites one of the chief pleasures of advancement : and when he becomes an inhabitant of the city, he at once adopts the customs of a citizen. His first wives, if he has more than one, are compelled to sacrifice the liberty they before enjoyed, and to endure that neglect, which is the natural consequence of his power to obtain younger and more beautiful females. Among these tribes, however, maternal claims are always respected. The mother’s influence over her son usually continues through life ; and she is ready to maintain that authority, which is grounded on habit and affection, by ministering to his gratification. It is her duty

to preside over his family ; if he is rich he usually intrusts to her, not only the choice of his female partners, but their management. An anticipation of the enjoyment of this power, makes the women of Persia anxiously desire to have male children. The birth of a son is hailed with joy ; that of a daughter is always a disappointment.

“ These observations on the usages of the wandering tribes, chiefly apply to those of Persian and Turkish origin. The Arabian tribes subject to Persia, who inhabit the shores of the Gulf, are more assimilated in their habits to the people from which they are derived, than to those amid whom they dwell. They continue to speak Arabick, and preserve almost all the customs of their original country. They in general dress like the inhabitants of Arabia, wearing, instead of a cap of the Persians, a light turban, and are usually covered with a flowing cloak. The manners of this race, though less rude than those of the other tribes of Persia, retain much of the wildness and independence of their ancestors.

“ The diet of the Arabian tribes in Persia, is more frugal than that of any other of the inhabitants of that kingdom : it consists chiefly of dates. But what others would consider a hardship, habit, with them, has converted into an enjoyment ; and the Arab deems no food more delightful, than that, upon which he lives. Some years ago, a woman, belonging to one of the Arab families, settled at Abusheher, and had gone to England with the children of a British resident at that place. When she returned, all crowded around her to hear her report of the country she had visited. She described the roads, the carriages, the horses, the wealth, and the splendour of the cities, and highly cultivated state of the country.

“ Her audience were full of envy at the condition of Englishmen, and were on the point of retiring with that impression, when the woman happened to add, that the country she had visited only wanted one thing to make it delightful. ‘ What is that ? ’ was the general reply : ‘ it has not a date tree in it,’ said she, I never ceased to look for one, all the time I was there, but I looked in vain.’ The sentiments of the Arabs who had listened to her, were, in an instant, changed by this information. It was no longer envy, but pity, which they felt for men, who were condemned to live in a country, where there were no date trees.

“The Arabian tribes in Persia possess the power of flying from oppression, when they cannot resist it. The sea is always open to them, and they are accustomed to that element. Not only the islands of the Gulf, but the neighbouring territories of Turkey, and the opposite coast of Arabia, are inhabited by their brethren; and these circumstances, combined with their original habits, give a freedom of sentiment and expression to this race of men, that is very striking.”

[The following description is from the travels of *Ali Bey el Abassi*, recently published at Paris. This Ali Bey is a Spaniard, but disguised as a Persian: he has travelled over many parts of Asia and Africa; and had an opportunity of seeing some objects, which Christians were prohibited from visiting. Among these, was the immense Turkish Mosque at Jerusalem, built on the scite of Solomon's Temple, and which the Mahometans have never suffered any Jew or Christian to enter. The building has therefore never been accurately described. It is divided into two parts, called *El Aksa* and *El Sahhara*; we shall give the account of the latter.]

“This building, by its harmony with *el Aksa*, may be considered as making a part of the same whole. It takes its name from a rock, the object of most profound veneration, which exists in the centre of this building.

“The Sahhara stands on a platform, a parallelogram of about 400 feet long from North to South, and 399 wide from East to West, raised sixteen feet above the general level of the court. The ascent to it is by eight flights of steps, two to the South, two to the North, one to the East, and three to the West. Almost in the middle of this platform, rises the magnificent edifice of the Sahhara, in form an octagon, each side measuring externally, sixty one feet.

“The Sahhara is entered by four gates: that to the south, is called *Beb el Kebla*; that to the west, is *Beb el Garb*; that to the north, is *Beb el Djenna*; that to the east, is *Beb Davoud*. *Beb el Kebla* has a handsome portico, supported by eight Corinthian columns of marble. The other gates are surmounted by ornamental wood works, suspended over them; but without columns. Over the centre of the building rises a noble spherical cupola, with two rows of large windows.

looking to the court without ; it is supported by four large pillars, and twelve stately columns placed circularly.

“ This central circle is surrounded by two naves forming concentrick octagons, separated by eight pillars and sixteen columns, of the same nature and size of those of the centre ; and of a beautiful brown marble. The roofs are flat ; and the whole is covered with ornaments in the most exquisite taste, with mouldings in marble, gold, &c. The capitals of these columns are of the Composite order, and entirely gilded. The columns which form the central circle, have attick bases ; those between the octagon naves are cut off at the lower part, not having even the torus or the fillet, which should terminate the shaft ; and instead of a base, they stand on a die, or cube of white marble. The proportion of these columns approaches that of the Corinthian order ; the shaft is sixteen feet in height.

“ The diameter of the Cupola is about forty-seven feet ; its height ninety-three. The entire diameter of the edifice is nearly 159 feet and a half. The floor of the central circle, is three feet above those of the naves around it, and is closed by a high and magnificent grating of gilt iron. This central circle encloses the rock called *el Sahhara Allah* : which is the particular object of this stately structure, and generally that of the Haram, or Temple of Jerusalem.

“ *El Hadjera el Sahhara*, or the rock of Sahhara, is a rock that rises above the ground, about thirty-three feet in diameter ; in form, the segment of a sphere. The surface of this rock is unequal, ragged, and retains its natural form. Towards the north side of it is a cleft, which tradition attributes to the violence of the Christians, who endeavoured to carry away that part of the rock which is wanting ; but it suddenly became invisible to the eyes of the infidels, and at length the true believers found the separation, in two pieces, which are now in different places.

“ A true Mussulman believes, that the *Sahhara Allah* is the place where the prayers of mankind are the most acceptable to the Deity, after the House of God at Mecca. For this reason all the prophets, from the creation of the world to Mahomet, have come hither to pray ; and at this day the prophets and angels resort to pray on the rock, in troops, invisible to mortal eyes ; besides the ordinary guard of seventy thousand angels, which continually surround it, and are regularly relieved every day.

“The night in which the Prophet Mahomet was taken from Mecca by the angel Gabriel, and transported in a moment through the air to Jerusalem, on his mare *el Borak*, which has the head and bosom of a beautiful woman, a crown, and wings, the prophet, after having left *el Borak* at the door of the temple, came and performed his prayer on the Sakhara, among the other prophets and angels, who having saluted him most respectfully, yielded to him the place of honour.

“At the moment when the prophet stood on the Sakhara, the rock, sensible of its honour in supporting its holy load, shrunk, and like softened wax, received the impression of his holy feet, on its surface towards the south west. This impression is now covered by a kind of large cage of gilded wire, wrought in such a manner, that the impression cannot be seen because of the interior obscurity; but by means of an opening formed in this cage, the impression may be touched by the hand; and the believer sanctifies himself, by passing that hand over his face and beard; demonstration sufficient, that this is truly an impression of the foot of the greatest of prophets.

“The interior of the rock forms a cave, into which is a descent by a staircase on the south east. This cave is an irregular square of eighteen feet dimensions, and eight feet high in the centre. The roof is the natural irregular rock. At the foot of the stairs, there is to the right, a little frontispiece in marble, which bears the name of *el Makam Souliman*, or Solomon’s place; another frontispiece, similar to the left, is called *el Makam Davoud*, or David’s place; a cavity or niche in the rock to the south west, is called *el Makam Ibrahim*, or place of Abraham; a step semi-circular, hollow, at the angle of the north west, is called *el Makam Djibrila*, or place of Gabriel; and lastly, a kind of table in stone, at the north east angle is called *el Makam Hoder*, or place of Elijah.

“In the middle of this subterraneous chamber, the vault is pierced by a hole almost cylindrical, lanthorn-like, about three feet in diameter; this is the place of the Prophet.

“The rock is surrounded by a defence of wood about elbow high, and above, at five or six feet higher is a curtain of silk, in bands alternately red and green, hanging all over the rock by means of columns. According to so much as I could discern, especially of the interior of the cave, this rock seemed to be of fine marble, in colour white, inclining to reddish,

“Near to it, on the north, is seen in the pavement a square of green marble, beautifully veined, about fifteen inches square, fixed by four or five gilt nails: this is, they say, the gate of Paradise. Several other holes shew that it was formerly fixed by a greater number of nails; which were torn away by the devil when he was determined on entering Paradise: but in this attempt he was disappointed, not being able to detach the nails, which yet remain.

“The Sahhara has a wooden gallery, for the singers, supported by several small columns. I there saw a Koran, the leaves of which are nearly four feet in length, and more than two feet and a half in width. Tradition affirms that it belonged to Caliph Omar; but I saw another like it, in the great Mosque at Cario, named *el Azahas*, and another at Mecca, to which the same origin was assigned.

“The exterior of the Sahhara is incrustated with different kinds of marble to about half its height, the remainder is faced with small bricks, or tiles, of various colours and very pretty. The windows are furnished with beautiful painted glass, in arabesque patterns; there are five great windows on each side of the octagon.

“The Sahhara is the place of prayer for the followers of the rite *Haneffi*, which includes the Turks; *el Aksa* is the place of those of the rite *Schaffi*; the rites *Hänbeli* and *Maleki* have other places.

“Outside of the Sahhara eastward, at the distance of three or four paces, fronting the gate *Bed Davoud*, is a handsome oratory: the roof has eleven sides resting on eleven antique columns, of calcareous breccia, the most valuable that can be conceived of; their general colour is a reddish grey. In the centre of the oratory is a small cupola, supported by six columns placed in a circle, equal in every thing to the former. I consider these columns, as well as those within the Sahhara, as remains of the ancient temple of Solomon. In this oratory is a niche, where prayer is made: it is esteemed particularly sacred, because tradition considers it as *el Mehkemé Davoud*; the Tribunal of David.

“North west of the Sahhara, at three or four paces, is another small oratory, composed of six columns supporting a cupola, called *Cobba Dijibrilo*, or place of Gabriel. Another, larger, to the west of this, supported by eight columns,

is named *Cobbat em Mearasch*, or *Cobbat en Nebi*, i. e. of the Prophet. North east of this last is the *Cobba Behhinn-behhinn*, a small square house which contains one of the pieces of the rock Sahhara, cut away by the christians, and rendered invisible to them. Not far off northward of the Cobba of Gabriel, is a small cupola on six columns, called *Cobbat el Arouâah*, or of the spirit; lastly, against an angle which overlooks the flight of Stairs at the north west, is placed another cupola smaller, resting on six columns, to which is given the name of *Cobbat el Hhoder*, or of Elias.

“On the southwest angle of the platform of the Sahhara, is an edifice containing three or four rooms, which are used as store chambers, for containing oil for the lamps of the temple.

“Between this store house and the principal steps of the Sahhara leading from the Aksa, is the *Monbar*, or pulpit for preaching from on publick fast days. This structure is interesting, on account of the great number of small antique columns which adorn it.

“Between the *Monbar* and the principal stairs, is a niche from which the Iman directs the prayers, on such publick days; lastly, between this *Monbar* and the oil store houses, is a small roof supported by two columns, called *Mary’s place*.

“On the western side of the platform of the Sahhara, are two small rooms, in which two, the most learned doctors of the law sit, to give publick consultations.

“On the north are five small houses, each of which has a portico of three small arches; they serve as dwellings for poor students, who lead a life of retirement, continually occupied in reading and meditation.

“On the eastern side are privies; on the rest of the platform are the margins of several cisterns.

“I have already noticed eight flights of stairs which lead to the platform of the Sahhara. The upper part of each of those toward the south is crowned with an insulated frontispiece of four arches, resting on columns and pillars; the frontispiece of the eastern stairs is supported by five arches: those to the north, have each five arches; those to the west have also each four arches; that on the same side, near the oil stores, has no such ornament.

“It is believed, that the frontispiece composed of four arches, above the principal flight of stairs which leads from the Aksa, is the spot where is fixed, though invisibly, *el Miza*,

or the eternal balance, in which will be weighed the good and the bad actions of every man, at the day of judgment.

"A small railing runs all round the whole platform of the Sabhara.

"On the outside, northwest, are several small houses, attached to the platform, serving as dwellings to the people employed in the temple.

"On the east side of the great court of the temple, attached to the city wall, is a hall about twenty-one feet in length, by fourteen in width, the bottom of which is ornamented with several cloths of different colours; this is said to be the place where stood the throne of Solomon.

"Following the wall to the east, is a staircase which leads to a small window at a certain height; here is a portion of reversed column, which is partly out of the window, above the deep precipice over the torrent Cedron, and in front of the Mount of Olives. This is supposed to be the place where is fixed the *śirat*, or invisible bridge, sharper than the sabre's edge, over which the faithful will glide with the rapidity of lightning, to enter into Paradise; while unbelievers who attempt to pass it, will fall from thence to hell.

"On the south west angle of the platform of the Sabhara, is a square chapel, named *Cobba Moussa*, or the chapel of Moses.

"The cisterns are supplied with rain water, from which the water-carriers of the city supply the publick."

French Works in 1815.

The number of works on various subjects that has appeared in France during the year 1815, is 674. Our readers may recollect, that formerly it approached, or even exceeded 1000. The distribution of the subjects has been as follows: Several of the works are new editions.

	No. of works.
Natural History	7
Botany	12
Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Pharmacy	12
Physiology, Medicine, Surgery	47
Mathematical Science	20
Astronomy	4
Arts and Manufactures	13

Commerce	- - - - -	11
Finances	- - - - -	13
Rural and domestick Economy	- - - - -	17
Military art	- - - - -	16
Marine	- - - - -	7
Forests, Bridges, Roads	- - - - -	4
Geography and Topography	- - - - -	35
Travels	- - - - -	13
History	- - - - -	57
Biography	- - - - -	44
Political Economy	- - - - -	84
Jurisprudence, Legislation	- - - - -	26
Instruction, Education	- - - - -	22
Philosophy	- - - - -	6
Religion	- - - - -	4
Fine Arts	- - - - -	36
Poetry	- - - - -	33
Novels and Romances	- - - - -	27
Theatrical	- - - - -	16
Literature, Bibliography	- - - - -	26
Numismatics	- - - - -	1
Free Masonry	- - - - -	2
Musick	- - - - -	17
Miscellaneous works	- - - - -	12
Study of Languages	- - - - -	18
Journals	- - - - -	3
Almanacks	- - - - -	4

—674

New Works.

Observations of a Russian during a residence in England of ten months; of its laws, manufactures, customs, habits, vices, commercial and civil polity, &c. ; translated from the original manuscript of OLOFF NAPEA, ex officer of cavalry.

Travels of Ali Bey, in Morocco, in Tripoli, Cyprus, Egypt, Arabia, Syria, and Turkey, between the years 1803 and 1807, written by himself and translated into English. The work will make two volumes quarto, illustrated by about one hundred plates. It is now known that this Ali Bey is a Spaniard disguised. The work loses some of its interest on this account, but is still an interesting one.

Among the works recently published in France, is one entitled *Le Patissier pittoresque* : a treatise on *Picturesque pastry*. It contains one hundred and twenty-five plates ; presenting various designs for embellishing the table, &c. &c. !!

The history of the Mahometan Empire in Spain, containing a general history of the Arabs, their Institutions, Conquests, Literature, Arts, Sciences, and Manners, to the expulsion of the Moors. Designed as an introduction to the Arabian Antiquities. By J. C. Murphy, Architect. With a map shewing the principal conquests of the Arabs under Khalifs, or successors of Mahomet. 4to. 1*l.* 15*s.*

The Arabian antiquities of Spain, consisting of one hundred engravings, executed in the best manner, by the first artists, from drawings made on the spot, by the Author, representing the most remarkable remains of the Spanish Arabs, now existing in the Peninsula, including their gates, castles, fortresses, and towers—courts, halls, and domes—baths, fountains, wells, and cisterns—inscriptions in Cufick and Asiatick characters—porcelain and enamel mosaicks, paintings and sculptured ornaments, &c. accompanied by descriptions. By James Cavanagh Murphy, Architect, author of the description of Batalha. Large Folio. Price, 40 guineas, half bound.

The Representative History of Great Britain and Ireland ; comprising a history of the House of Commons, and of the Counties, Cities, and Boroughs of the United Kingdom, dedicated to the Hampden Society. By T. H. B. Oldfield. 5 vols.

Mr. Ricardo has published an able pamphlet, on the means of providing an economical and secure currency. His proposal is, that, to prevent the rise of paper above the value of bullion, the bank should be obliged to deliver uncoined gold or silver at the mint, and standard price, in exchange for their notes, instead of the delivery of guineas ; and that they should also be obliged to give their paper in exchange for standard gold, at the price of 3*l.* 17*s.* per ounce ; the quantity demanded or sold not to be less than 20 ounces. Mr. Ricardo shews the effect this would have, in keeping the value of notes and of bullion equal.

[In the dearth of more sanguinary conflicts, the English newspapers have attempted to gain the attention of their readers by ridicule of the political characters of the day. This warfare is principally waged in the *Morning Chronicle* and the *Courier*; on the administration by the former, and against the opposition by the latter. Many of these attacks are disgustingly coarse and scurrilous, and of late we think those of the *Courier* exhibit the most wit. The papers for April contain a series of these effusions under the name of English Melodies. We have selected some of these that are the least objectionable on the score of decency, and the most fortunate in their parody.]

ENGLISH MELODIES.

“It has been a subject of national reproach that the *English* have no national songs. Every body knows that the Irish and the Scotch have, by their National Melodies, just published, added to *their* reputation and to *our* humiliation, and even the Jews have of late found a *David* in Lord Byron, who has endeavoured to place them in the same scale (of the *gamut* at least) with their Christian neighbours.

“A *patriotick* society of English individuals have determined, as far as in them lies, to retrieve our national character; and to enter the lists with the Irish, Scotch, and Hebrew Melodists.

“A person of the name of Milbourne, was said by Dryden to be the *fairest* of *criticks*, because he published his own verses with those of his antagonists; and left the publick to judge of the merit of the two productions. We, too, are ambitious of the praise of fair criticism, and shall, in the same spirit, exhibit to our readers the works, which our Society undertakes to imitate, previously to our laying before them our own performances on the same model. An impartial publick will decide between the rival compositions; and our publication will be so far, at least, assured of success, that one half of it will be of acknowledged merit.

“We shall begin (which may be called taking the *Bull* by the horns) with one of the celebrated Irish Melodies.

SONG.

The words by T. Moore, Esq. the musick arranged by Sir J. Stevenson.

Oh! the days are gone when beauty bright
 My heart's chain wove;
 When my dream of life from morn till night
 Was love—still love!
 New hopes may bloom,
 New days may come,
 Of milder, calmer beam;
 But there's nothing half so sweet in life
 As Love's young dream!
 Oh! there's nothing half so sweet in life
 As Love's young dream.

Tho' the bard to purer joys may soar,
 When wild youth's past;
 Tho' he win the wise, who frown'd before,
 To smile at last—
 He'll never meet,
 A joy so sweet,
 In all his noon of fame,
 As when first he sung to woman's ear
 His soul-felt flame,
 And at every close she blush'd to hear
 The one loved name.

Oh! that hallow'd form is ne'er forgot,
 Which first love trac'd;
 Still, it lingering haunts the greenest spot
 On memory's waste!
 'Twas odour fled
 As soon as shed;
 'Twas morning's winged dream,
 'Twas a light, that ne'er can shine again
 On life's dull stream;
 Oh! 'twas light that ne'er can shine again
 On life's dull stream.

IMITATED.

The words by John Calcraft, Esq. the musick by C. W. W. Wynne, Esq.

Oh! the time is past, when *Quarter-day*
 My cares would chase;
 When all in life that made me gay
 Was place—still place;

New hopes may bloom,
 New offers come,
 Of surer, higher pay—
 But there's nothing half so sweet in life
 As *Quarter-day* !
 Oh ! there's nothing half so sweet in life
 As *Quarter-day*.

II.

'Tho' I sit and vote with *Peter Moore*,
 Since all hope's past ;
 'Tho' I win from those who *cough'd* before,
 A cheer at last :
 So sweet a cheer
 I ne'er shall hear
 From *Opposition* throats,
 As when first I caught the Speaker's eye,
 And, big with notes,
 Moved the Committee of Supply
 On *Ordnance votes* !

III.

Oh ! never shall from memory fleet,
 Dear Palace-yard !*
 Yet fancy haunts the envied seat
 Of *Robert Ward*.
 I triumph'd there
 But *half-a year*,
 And touch'd but *half the pay* !
 But, oh !—I ne'er may touch it more
 For *half-a-day* ;
 Alas ! I ne'er may touch it more
 For *half-a-day* !

W.

"We to-day present our readers with one of Lord Byron's Hebrew Melodies, which for vigour of language, ease of versification, and magnificence of idea, is one of the most admirable lyric compositions in modern poetry. Anxious, however, to fulfil our engagement with the publick, we have not feared to enter the lists even with this excellent performance, and we trust that our '*Debate on the Navy Estimates*', will not be found unworthy our model. We are not authorized, much as we admire his work, to state the imitator's name ; but, from the *ingenious diffi-*

* The Ordnance Office, which is now in *Pall Mall*, was before in *Palace-yard*.

dence which such a silence implies, many of our readers will suspect him to be the Honourable Mr. WILLIAM HENRY LITTLETON, a gentleman who inherits at once the talents and modesty of his family.

“*Ingenui vultus puer, ingenuique pudoris !*”

THE DESTRUCTION OF SENNACHERIB.

I.

The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his Cohorts were gleaming in purple and gold ;
And the sheen of their spears was like stars on the sea,
When the blue wave rolls nightly on deep Gallilee.

II.

Like the leaves of the forest when summer is green,
The host with their banners at sunset were seen :
Like the leaves of the forest when Autumn hath blown,
That host on the morrow lay wither'd and strown.

III.

For the Angel of Death spread his wings on the blast,
And breathed in the face of the foe as he past ;
And the eyes of the sleepers wax'd deadly and chill,
And their hearts but once heaved, and for ever grew still !

IV.

And there lay the steed with his nostril all wide,
But through it there roll'd not the breath of his pride :
And the foam of his gasping lay white on the turf,
And cold as the spray of the rock-beating surf.

V.

And there lay the rider distorted and pale,
With the dew on his brow, and the rust on his mail ;
And the tents were all silent, the banners alone,
The lances unlifted, the trumpet unblown.

VI.

And the Widows of Ashur are loud in their wail,
And the idols are broke in the Temple of Baal ;
And the might of the Gentile, unsmote by the sword,
Hath melted like snow in the glance of the Lord !

DEBATE ON THE NAVY ESTIMATES.

I.

Old TIERNEY came down like a wolf on the fold,
 And his phalanx of voters was boasting and bold ;
 And the noise of their cheering resembled the roar,
 As you shoot London Bridge, when the tide is half o'er.

II.

Like the rose-bush of summer, all budding and green,
 Their hopes, while the question was putting, were seen ;
 But, in two hours contest, so blighted and shorn,
 The bud was all gone ; there remain'd but the thorn.

III.

For the breath of the Ocean came strong on the blast ;
 And bung'd up the eyes of old GEORGE as it pass'd :
 And the hopes of his party began to grow chill,
 And their hearts quaked with sorrow, their voices were still.

IV.

And there lay black BROOM with his nostrils all wide,
 But though they there curl'd, it was not with pride ;
 And the froth of grey BENNET lay light on the turf,
 And the mouth-piece of WYNNE foam'd with anger and surf.

V.

And there, LAMBTON lay, more than commonly pale ;
 And there ugly BOB, with a face like a tail ;
 HARRY MARTIN awoke ; even NEWPORT was dumb ;
 And BARING look'd almost as frightful as B——M.

VI.

And the waiters at BROOKS's are loud in their wail ;
 And mute is the Holland-House-Temple of Baal ;
 And the might of the Party, in spite of big words,
 Hath melted like snow, both in *Commons* and *Lords*.

“The Leader's Lament,” which we lay before our readers, in this Number, is a happy imitation of the following lines, which have within this day or two appeared, entitled “Fare thee well,” and attributed to the pen of Lord BYRON ; and we think we may venture to say, that though our imitation does not crawl servilely on all fours, it possesses almost as much tenderness and pathos as the original ;—

FARE THEE WELL.

Fare thee well! and if for ever—
Still for ever, fare *thee well*—
Even though unforgiving, never
'Gainst thee shall my heart rebel.—
Would that breast were bared before thee
Where thy head so oft hath lain,
While that placid sleep came o'er thee
Which thou ne'er can'st know again;
Would that breast by thee glanced over,
Every inmost thought could shew?
Then thou would'st at last discover,
'Twas not well to spurn it so—
Though the world for this commend thee—
Though it smile upon the blow,
Even its praises must offend thee,
Founded on another's wo—
Though my many faults defaced me;
Could no other arm be found,
Than the one which once embraced me
To inflict a cureless wound?
Yet—oh, yet—thyself deceive not—
Love may sink by slow decay,
But by sudden wrench, believe not,
Hearts can thus be torn away;
Still thine own its life retaineth—
Still must mine—though bleeding—beat,
And the undying thought which paineth
Is—that we no more may meet.—
These are words of deeper sorrow
Than the wail above the dead,
Both shall live—but every morrow
Wake us from a widow's bed.—
And when thou would'st solace gather—
When our child's first accents flow—
Wilt thou teach her to say—"Father!"
Though his care she must forego?
When her little hand shall press thee—
When her lip to thine is prest—
Think of him whose prayer shall bless thee—
Think of him thy love had bless'd.
Should her lineaments resemble
Those thou never more may'st see—
Then thy heart will softly tremble
With a pulse yet true to me.—

All my faults—perchance thou knowest—
 All my madness—none can know ;
 All my hopes—where'er thou goest—
 Whither—yet with *thee* they go—
 Every feeling hath been shaken,
 Pride—which not a world could bow—
 Bows to thee—by thee forsaken,
 Even my soul forsakes me now.—
 But 'tis done—all words are idle—
 Words from me are vainer still ;
 But the thoughts we cannot bridle
 Force their way without the will.
 Fare thee well !—thus disunited—
 Torn from every nearer tie—
 Seared in heart—and lone—and blighted—
 More than this I scarce can die.

THE LEADER'S LAMENT.

By the Right Honourable G—P—Y.

Fare ye well—and if for Easter—
 Still for Easter fare ye well—
 Till the call ye now released are,
 'Gainst the Serjeant none rebel—

On those seats no longer snore ye,
 Seats so often filled by you,
 While that placid sleep came o'er ye
 Which my speeches lull'd ye to.

Would, before the session's over,
 That the house could hear me through,
 Then at last they might discover
 'Tis not well to *snouch* me so.

If *ye* do not choose to cheer me,
 Ye, who my adherents are,
 Why, in silence can't ye hear me ?
 Why cry " Question " at the bar ?

Though I may grow rather prozy,
 Though my jokes fall flat and dead,
 Why must you, the first, get dozy ?
 Why, the first go home to bed ?

Yet—oh yet—yourselves deceive not—
Though it be a bore to stay,
Thus to treat your Chief, believe not,
Can to office pave the way.

Still those Ministerial faces
Grin at *us*———still *ours* look blue—
And —— our curse!—they keep their places
Still, whate'er we say or do.

Then when “aye” they loudly hollow
Will ye stoutly echo “No!”—
And are all prepared to follow
When I to the lobby go?

If my rival BROUGHAM should press ye,
Listen not to him, I pray—
Will ye sorely thus distress me?
Poor old Snouch thus turn away?

Should his speeches e'er resemble
Those which you have heard from me—
Well the Government might tremble
Two such Orators to see.

All my jokes—you know but too well—
All my dulness—none can know—
But our common hopes to do well,
Wither—if you treat me so.

All our confidence is shaken,
One may come, but many go;—
By METHUEN join'd—by LEECH forsaken—
E'en BANKES begins to smoke us now.

But 'tis done—debates are idle—
Speeches from me are vainer still;
And Members whom no places bridle,
Must play the truant, when they will.

Then fare ye well!—thus disunited
Like you, was never party seen—
Nor coughed—and quizzed—and sneered—and slighted,
Like me has any leader been.

"We this day offer to the Publick, an imitation, by Mr. DUDLEY NORTH, of one of Mr. MOORE's most celebrated Melodies.

"Mr. NORTH, (to whom even political prejudice cannot deny true wit and refined taste,) felt that it would be presumptuous to attempt to rival the sweetness of expression and tenderness of thought which flow through this delightful song; he has therefore substituted for the vows of a lover, the paternal remonstrance of a wise old politician to a giddy young one. It is however unlucky that, of *advice*, as of religion, it may be said, that those who happen to be most in want of it, are of all men, the least capable of understanding it.

"In one point, we venture to believe that Mr. NORTH is at least equal to his model; as the introduction of his talented * and venerable friend, Mr. PONSONBY, instead of the Sun-flower, is surely 'a glorious emendation,' as Doctor JOHNSON says, 'which places the copyist almost on a level with the original author.'

I.

Believe me, if all those endearing young charms,
Which I gaze on so fondly to day,
Were to change by to-morrow, and fleet in my arms
Like fairy gifts, fading away!
Thou would'st still be ador'd, as this moment thou art,
Let thy loveliness fade as it will,
And around the dear ruin, each wish of my heart
Would entwine itself verdantly still.

II.

It is not, while beauty and youth are thine own,
And thy cheeks unprofan'd by a tear,
That the fervour and faith of a soul can be known,
To which time will but make thee more dear!
Oh! the heart that has truly loved, never forgets,
But as truly loves on to the close,
As the sunflower turns on her God, when he sets,
The same look which she turn'd when he rose.

* *Talented*, an Irish expression, equivalent to the English word *clever*.

IMITATED.

To P.—, M. P

I.

Believe me when all those ridiculous airs
 Which you practice so pretty to day,
 Shall vanish by age, and thy well twisted hairs
 Like my own, be both scanty and grey.
 Thou wilt still be a goose, as a goose thou hast been,
 (Tho' a fop and a fribble no more)
 And the world which has laugh'd at the fool of *eighteen*,
 Will laugh at the fool of *three-score*.

II.

'Tis not while you wear a short coat of light brown,
 Tight breeches and neckcloth so full,
 That the *absolute blank* of a mind can be shewn,
 Which time will but render more dull :
 The fool, who is truly so, never forgets,
 But still fools it on to the close ;
 As PONSONBY leaves the debate, when he sets,
 Just as dark as it was when he rose.

R.

HISTORICAL RESEARCHES,

By Sir Gilbert Heathcote.

* Mirvan, the Arab Chief of old,
 In Council prompt, in battle bold,
 † For that mankind he did surpass
 Was called *Mesopotamia's ass*.
 Mark then how much our whigs outshine
 The glories of the Arabian line !
 Of Caliphs the redoubted host
One ass and one alone, could boast ;
 While here so rich is our display
 Of *Talent* in each kind of way :—
 Of Genius such is our provision
 That none but *Tellers in division*,
 Can number as the party passes,
 The list of *opposition asses*.

* See Gibbon's Decline and Fall, chap. 52.

† "For that" is here used Gilbertice, for "*Because*." The particle "*For*" is a great favourite with the worthy Baronet, being often used by him *ele-gantiae gratia*, in cases in which strictly speaking, it is perhaps redundant. As for example, "Mr. Speaker, I will not presume *For* to say"—Sir, I should very much wish *for* to know—and the like. The worthy Baronet also rejoices as much in the particle "*That*" as a latin verb does in the genitive

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Pompey's Pillar.

The learned of the 15th century were more ready than observers, to give names to all the remains of antiquity. These denominations have been handed down from age to age, and their propriety has remained unquestioned, though the appellation was often bestowed upon very slight presumptions in favour of its correctness. It is known that Cæsar raised a Monument over the remains of Pompey, and that after the lapse of more than two centuries, the Emperour Adrian on a visit to Egypt, ordered it to be repaired at his own expense. This monument was supposed, at the above period, to be discovered in an immense Pillar, which was found to stand within the limits of the ancient city of Alexandria; and it accordingly bears his name. Some however considered it as a trophy of Septimius Severus. But it stands upon the ruins of the ancient City; and in the time of Severus, the City of the Ptolemies was not in ruins. From this and other facts ascertained by modern travellers, it is seen upon what grounds the name of Pompey has been attached to it. And as nothing is to be learned of it from the Greek or Roman classicks, and nothing is reported from the Arabs, it is upon the accounts of modern travellers alone that our opinion of it must be formed. It is described by Citizen Norry, a member of the French Institute, who visited it in company with several other French Scavans, as evidently compounded of ancient fragments which, separately constituting its four parts, base, pedestal, column, and capital, differ very much from each other in their material and style of execution. It is situated on a gentle eminence, and placed on a base formed of a square fragment of an Egyptian obelisk, which must have been brought to the place, as the hieroglyphick characters inscribed on it are reversed. On this base rests a bad pedestal, which supports a beautiful shaft highly polished on every side, excepting that exposed to the sands of the desert, and consisting of an entire piece of Thebaick granite, sixty three feet in length. This is surmounted by a Corinthian capital of much coarser work-

case; and he employs it with peculiar grace and felicity to indicate some *precise* period of time, in the following manner; "I can only assure the *Quse* that the moment, *when that* I came for to hear of the intended Country meeting," &c. &c.

manship, and remarkable for the massiveness of its form. Although the order on the whole be considered Corinthian, from the capital, it does not still exhibit the Grecian proportions. Those of the shaft approach the Ionick. This was doubtless once part of an ancient edifice, the magnificence and elegance of whose structure, the purity of its execution still attests. Sufficient discoveries have been made by partial removals of the soil round this column, to justify a belief, that deeper researches might lay open the foundations and atrium of the portico, to which this column belonged. From the circumstances which have been mentioned, the period of its construction may be referred with equal probability to that of the Califs, or that of the Greek Emperors, since, if the pedestal and capital are executed with sufficient elegance to belong to the latter era, they are not so perfect, but that they may have been the production of the first. A party of English sailors, near 80 years since, carried a rope over the capital by means of a kite, and then ascended and drank punch there. Citizen Norry availed himself of this expedient, but without giving credit in his Memoirs, to the English ingenuity which suggested it, to obtain accurately its several admeasurements. He estimated the total height of the monument at 88 French feet, 6 inches, and found that in consequence of the instability of its foundation, it had an inclination of about eight inches. Of its particular dimensions, he made

The height of the base	- - -	5 f.	6 3-10 in.
Do. pedestal	-	10 f.	
Do. capital	- -	9 f.	10 6-10 in.
Diam. of lower part of column	-	8 f.	4 in.
Upper	- - - - -	7 f.	2 8-10 in.*

He found a depression of the capital of 2 inches, which gave him reason to suppose there had been once a projection on the top, for supporting the figure of the hero in whose honour it it was elevated. Ed. Wortely Montagu declares (in a Memoir in Phil. Trans. vol. 57) that he found a coin within the circumference of the shaft, which was one of Vespasian's. He affirms that the pedestal on which the pillar, with its base, rests, is hollow, and that he entered it. He speaks too of a mutilated inscription, containing remains of Greek words or letters, on the base of the pillar. It is much to be regretted that this inscrip-

* A French foot is to an English foot, as 16 to 15.

tion is no longer legible. It would undoubtedly tell us something of its history, and inform us if it were raised either to commemorate the name of Pompey, or the glory of the Roman Emperour.

[A very learned dissertation on this celebrated monument, may be found in a quarto volume of Dr. White, Arabick professor in the University, Oxford, a copy of which work is in the Boston Atheneum. It contains the substance of all the speculations of the learned for the last hundred years on the subject, and three or four plates, exhibiting a view of the column, and the excavations that were made about its foundation, when the very curious circumstance of its resting on a block of granite about five feet square, was discovered. Dr. White shews almost conclusively, that this monument was erected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, in the *Serapeum*, or Temple of Serapis, and that it was probably in honour of the first of his family.]



FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

On the Fine Arts.

There are, perhaps, few subjects more grateful to our national pride, than the progress the fine arts have made under the genius and industry of our countrymen. There is a welcome in the reflection, that we have done something in this elevated department of the mind. We feel that we shall live in the works of art we have accomplished, we shall live in the sentiment which for ages has consecrated the canvass, which places the ancient painting in close company with the most elevated and venerable mental labours; which associates the most recent with the most remote age, and which promises to bear us along in perpetual remembrance. We feel a pride in these reflections, because they assure us, we shall not be forgotten: we feel, that when time shall have confirmed the decisions of nature, our age may constitute a venerable antiquity.

It is grateful to know, that in the brightest periods of the mind in earlier times, the fine arts most vigorously flourished. While some men were giving language to thought, and words to nature, by one species of signs; others were occupied with giving character to the marble, or perpetuating passing events, by the species of painting then in use. Now, if with us the

arts have preceded literature, it is merely because the peculiar circumstances under which we exist, have prevented great literary enterprise; men of genius have not been able to command foreign efforts of art, but have laboured to supply themselves by their own industry and talent.

But with all our native spirit, and love of the arts, there has not been yet a great deal done, to keep alive the zeal, or to cherish the affection. Before, however, inquiring into the state of the fine arts among us, it would be well to consider some of the motives which have influenced so many of our artists to leave us, and to make European galleries the depositories of their best works. The inquiry is of some importance; for the honour these artists should have reflected on America, has been yielded to other nations. In England, for instance, patronage has superseded birthright. But who will dispute the title to the fame our artists have been instrumental in bestowing on England? Is it not a fair exchange, for the protection that country has afforded our own genius?

There are many reasons why our artists should not have remained at home. One, and that involves all the rest, is the youthfulness of the country. From the total want of appropriate institutions in some places, and their infancy in others, we can hardly be said to possess adequate means of cultivating the arts.

Our artists have gone abroad to contemplate and study the master works of their favourite art, which were not, and could not be afforded them at home. They have gone abroad, to live under the inspection, the discipline, the influence of men who have devoted their lives to the study of the best specimens of art, and who have been eminent patrons of the arts themselves, in their own works. Some have said, we could not support the genius we were vigorous enough to produce. I grant that the cry of poverty may have deterred individuals from hazarding a support, for the uncertain immunities of fame; but if we were possessed of the means of intellectual support, our artists would have run the chances of patronage.

Another important reason why our artists leave us, is, that in this country the publick are somewhat deficient in a refined taste for their labours. The publick with us cannot yet discriminate accurately, between the various specimens of the fine arts presented to them; we speak here of their comparative merits. The artist may therefore fear to trust himself, or

rather his works, either to inspection or comparison. They may not please by their own merits, and comparison may result in a very unjust and unfortunate award. It is not meant that we want taste, or power of discrimination. Very few people among us can be found at all refined, who are not pleased with just delineations of nature. But the perfection of the perception, and the real enjoyment of what is true to nature, is founded either in a relish of nature itself, or in an habitual contemplation and study of the best picture landscapes. We may love these without ever having studied, or even been delighted with the real landscape. But to love them with a genuine and lasting affection, we must have given our hearts in some measure, to the exquisite combinations of the painter. To that magick of grouping, which brings together in perfect harmony, the beauties of the heavens and the earth, the cloud and the mountain, the stream and the wood. The pleasure afforded by works of art, is thus strictly and purely an intellectual enjoyment. It is not merely an instinctive, or natural perception. The ridiculous, the monstrous, the absurd in art, have ever had the most admirers. The genuine lover of nature, and of delineations of nature, must be one who has observed for himself, or studied the observations of others. If he has not possessed facilities for the study himself, but always have received nature at second hand, his criticisms will not be the less correct, if his standards have not been so. He will very often be a better critick than the mere copier of woods or hills, and detect a fault where every branch is in its place, and a thousand, where every cliff is most geographically detailed. In London men love the landscape, and know how to estimate the labours of Turner. They look at his exquisite skies with delight, not that they have had the most favourable opportunities of studying nature, but chiefly because they have seen fine representations of nature, and are as good criticks of what is natural or not so, as if they had not inspired the eternal fogs and smoke of the city, but had lived forever in the woods or fields. It is not meant here to speak of the perception of what appears after nature in the picture landscape, for many may possess this power, but of the genuine relish of its beauty. If these remarks be correct, it would follow, that to enjoy what is truly beautiful in art, it is necessary that the mind be deeply susceptible of what is beautiful, from habitual observation of it. It would

appear, that it is necessary that the mind should have been presented with unequivocal standards of excellence in art, or attentively observed the beautiful in nature. In fine, that the mind should have been instructed how to perceive, if it may be so expressed, by the previous sanctions of taste, that a given production of the fine arts, is, as far as it is susceptible of perfection, perfect.

If then a majority of those who among us at all patronize painting, are only delighted with the resemblance picture landscapes may bear to their conceptions of nature, but are to a degree unsusceptible of those higher pleasures of taste, which flow from a genuine relish and understanding of the effects of genius, operating on the materials offered it by nature, we have an additional reason for the emigration of our artists to other countries. This, however, is by no means the only, or the most important conclusion, to which the above remarks lead us. If they are true, we are led at once to the great importance of an institution, which shall not merely instruct artists, but which shall in itself give, and improve taste—Which shall in our own country afford our artists, the salutary, corrective influences of sound criticism, which, first acquired by the contemplation and study of the best works of art, shall, in its perfection, be able at once to trace the faintest approximations to excellence, and to discover and point out every deviation. Perhaps no country ever presented a more noble opportunity, for affording this support to genius than our own. Artists of merit appear every day on the stage; an honourable pecuniary patronage, it is true, is afforded them, in the purchase of their works. All that they now want are standard works in their profession of study, and men of taste to love, or correct the productions of their own genius.

This part of the subject has been more insisted on, because it appeared deserving of more regard, than has hitherto been bestowed upon it. Where this kind and degree of cultivation of taste for the arts are entirely wanting, the artist is in some danger, as well as the publick. The publick will ever be easily satisfied, with the decisions of the presently existing taste. Now if early efforts are admired, and only early efforts, the publick may be called upon to be pleased with but indifferent works at best, and the artist in some danger of resting in a mediocrity, which he finds regarded with admiration. Let us for a moment

suppose this state of things to continue here, that the finer details of genius are not introduced from abroad among us, or more distinguished artists do not appear, how slow will be the progress to great excellence, how hardly possible will it be for that excellence to be obtained.

It must not be concealed, that the above remarks are true so far; and no farther, than as we mean in this country to make progress with other nations in the fine arts. If our artists mean to labour with them, they must refer to the same or similar standards, and submit to a similar tribunal. It may however be a favourite project with some of our artists, to labour to give their works an original character, and by striving for a species of individuality in their labours, to found a new school in this country. They may turn from examining the specimens of the Flemish school which may lie in their way, which owe so much of their reputation to their admirable delineations of national manners, and calculate on a similar fame with their authors, if they are as successful in their illustrations of the scenery and pastoral life of their own country. But is there not some hazard in indulging a sentiment so honourable in its final cause, as this appears to be? Have we in fact enough that is peculiar in this country, to trust one's reputation exclusively to its delineation? Our country has, it is true, every variety of surface, and the vegetable productions of all climates. Its mountains are lofty, and its woods majestick—its lakes are lost in distance, before the eye which would paint them. But would not the landscape painter, who should leave the regions of cultivation, to give his pencil to the simple service of nature, be in some danger of returning to us with his canvass loaded with a thousand woods, or washed by an interminable sea? Would there not be some hazard, that amid such luxuriance in nature, such magnificent confusion, an indistinctness of mental vision would be produced, or that the best exertions that genius might make, would be sacrificed to an affected fidelity? Suppose, on the contrary, that an artist, really possessing distinguished talents, to submit his mind to the instructions which the best efforts of genius afford, to lay in fact a foundation in their careful, but independent study, with what clearness of perception, with what powers of discrimination and combination would he approach the scenes just mentioned? Farther, have our peasantry individuality enough to ensure the artist, who may

study and delineate their habits, a lasting fame? Is there enough that is peculiar in their costume, their manners, their customs and features, to enable an observer at once to recognize them in a picture? The great claim of delineations of this kind, consists in their striking truth; or in their novelty, their originality. We can ascertain their truth by our knowledge of their originals only. But for them to delight us by their truth and originality, their correctness will perhaps not be taken into the account, they must be new to us, and still bear a resemblance to what has, or does exist. We are interested in the new costume and new countenance, because they in some sort extend our knowledge of human society. And when the foreign artist descends to the detail of the amusements and mechanical occupations, to the domestic economies of his countrymen, we are still more indebted to him for the new acquaintance to which he has introduced us. He becomes in short a most interesting historian, of all that most delights us in the outside of human nature. Now many of these sources of interest must be wanting to the native artist, who confines himself to our own country. His pictures will want novelty—They will not extend our knowledge. And unless we have observed the inhabitants of our villages with more than a casual glance, unless we have caught their faint, but distinctive characteristics, the whole claim of native peculiarity will be wanting, and the painter, for us, will have gleaned them in vain.

With all the difficulties, however, that the artist under supposition may be surrounded, it may be worth an effort to do all with the scenes and beings around him, which their nature and characters will enable him to do. If there be not much that is peculiar, if nothing new, he will not fail of his reward, or be disappointed of his fame, if he gives us nature as it is, and manners as he may find them. If, however without studying the lessons which the works of the great masters in landscape teach, he studies our native scenery and manners, his labour will not be the less, because he finds a profusion of materials; his labour of selection will be the greater, because the objects offered him are the more numerous. His imagination will not be allowed repose, because his eye meets new objects on every side it turns. He must be true, and at the same time original. He must give us the landscape of nature; but if he means to delight cultivated

taste, his own genius must not be allowed to slumber, and his own invention must labour among the things which are made.

These remarks are suggested, not to depress that honourable enterprise, which would detain a man of real genius among the scenes, or manners of his native country; they have been made, because these scenes and these manners have been adverted to by some, as the best studies for the young artist, and because their peculiarities, their originality, have been considered as even better objects for study, than the management of nature in other countries, which fine picture landscapes consist in, and those delineations of foreign manners, which distinguish peculiar schools. It may have been thought, that the painter of our own country would have an easy road to fame. It has been attempted in the above remarks to show, that the labours of genius are efforts of mind, and that he who seeks for reputation in feeble executions, or at best but mechanical skill, is in some danger of being disappointed of his fame. He may be a gainer at home, but he will be a loser abroad; and above all, his fame will not be safe, even in his own country, provided its maturer age be blessed with a better taste.

Having at some length, inquired into some of the motives which may influence our artists to leave their own country, the question returns upon us, with which these remarks commenced, what is the state of the arts in this country? To give a general answer to this question, we may reply, that we are rich in our treasure of genius, but are somewhat deficient in taste. This may be called a negative state, and it may be said, that a capacity to produce great works in the fine arts, can only be inferred from what has been already done, and that if such works exist among us, on our own principle, their influence must have been, to have given and corrected taste. As imposing however as the reply may seem, and as unsatisfactory as our remarks may appear, a few considerations may show that they are not altogether unfounded.

Some of our best artists, perhaps for the reasons assigned in this paper, have left us. Should any one doubt that they are men of extraordinary powers, they have only to visit for a moment the regions they now inhabit, and they will return fully satisfied. What modern European gallery is there, which has not been enriched by their works? Who is the president of the Royal Academy in England, and who

is he who already seems to have borrowed his mantle of this venerable father? These are our countrymen, and their works speak to us from abroad, and yield us the fame of genius, if we have been unable to offer in exchange the protection of taste, and of patronage. Mr. West, in a conversation with the writer, remarked, that America was a nursery of artists—That he, at his advanced age, recollected many a school-fellow, who discovered at school indications of genius for the fine arts, which, if cultivated, might have challenged for them lasting fame. But that we have genius, we need not go to our countrymen abroad for evidence. In this town, for instance, we have artists who, though purely the children of nature, and the best specimens of the fine arts, for whose contemplation and study are their own works, have, notwithstanding, laboured for an age, beyond their own, and will furnish abundant evidence, that theirs was an age not destitute of genius.

The best works of our greatest artists, are, however, beyond our reach, and their salutary influences of course denied us. Those of our younger artists are few in number, and are too much dispersed to afford them beneficial instructions. If it therefore be proved, that we are rich in genius, our deficiency in taste is an inductive probability. And this conclusion rests on this simple supposition, that the works of genius, their contemplation and study, are the legitimate sources of taste, and that the reaction of taste, viz. its powerfully corrective influences, are essentially necessary, or at least, among the surest means of the best developement of genius itself.

If what is contained in these pages be true, if such be the actual state of the fine arts among us, there is nothing reproachful in the truth, or melancholy in the condition. It would appear, on the contrary, that there was every thing to excite to the most liberal exertions, and the best grounds for expecting a successful issue. If the men of fine genius among us be encouraged, if they are excited to those efforts, which the powerful stimulus of the finest works of art would call forth, and to which their constant reference to their own works can hardly be expected to awaken them, we shall not long be deficient in taste, nor our country despoiled of the fame which is her natural and legitimate right. The institution now in contemplation in this place, has all these objects in view, and an effort so honourable, it is trusted, cannot but succeed.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

On Models in Literature.

“ Yet still uppermost,
 Nature was at his heart, as if he felt,
 Though yet he knew not how, a wasting power
 In all things, which from her sweet influence,
 Might tend to wean him.” WORDSWORTH.

When I lay down the reviews, or go home from a party of fashionable criticks, I pity the whole race of authors. If they would be the favourites of the age they live in, they must stand in awe of its opinions and taste, however various or chilling. They are surrounded by tribunals and judges in almost every class; and all put in their claims to special deference and respect. The frivolous and gay, one would think, had no concern with the depths of the heart, nor even with the landscape, any farther than the tints that overlay it. Still they are readers and judges. They lay up a little poetry or wit, for conversation's sake, or at least to gild their affectation—and therefore they must be consulted.—Then again, we have exact scholars, who require a sustained faultlessness and elegance in every thing. They are shocked with blemishes or occasional dulness, and judge a man by failures that are merely accidental, and which do not indicate in the least, the original cast or defects of his mind. They never look at gleams, or regions of clear azure, in a sleepy sky. They laugh at foolish simplicity, till they cannot discern the real, which is very often in the neighbourhood.—There is too, a great middling crowd of readers, whose vocabulary of criticism extends little further than to “*unnatural, out-of-life,*” &c.; and words of this sort they are sure to level against every man, who ventures upon the marvellous, wild, and unreal. These are the practical men, who judge every thing, by what they call common sense. They laugh at the folly of encouraging men in the indolent luxuries, and unprofitable excesses of imagination and feeling, when we were sent here to work, to be useful, to conquer the vices, and bring home the wanderings of the mind.—Other readers, however, are so fastidious and ethereal, that they cannot bear to see a Poet in the streets or workshops.

And shall authors then never be allowed to lose sight of the motley race, who are to judge them? A heavy day it will be for poetry, when society is made the school of genius, instead of solitude. You might as well take a man from the quiet, unconfined seclusion in which he has lived, and rioted from infancy, and fit up a cell for him in the inquisition, in some large city, where the tread of the tormentor is heard above, and the laughter of the world without the walls.

We may differ in our tastes as much as we please. It is a way to encourage all sorts of mind, and bring to light every thing fitted for poetry. But we must get out of the bad habit of dictating to great minds, and striving to bring them up in our own way. Genius is not willing to be interfered with, and told how to work, where to travel, and what to admire. And yet there are men, who go so far as to hold up models for imitation, and standards of taste, for writers of every age and country, let their minds be ever so lofty and original. We shall say a little of this interference, for it appears to be the most mischievous of all.

It may be well for minds of a common cast to read and obey. They may profitably give themselves up all their lives, to the superior intellects about them. They are not made nor wanted for authors, and they only leave a gap in the busier parts of society, when they venture to be such. It is the great men of a country, who are to make and support its literature. And to tell such men that they must give their days and nights to any models, ancient or modern, is to destroy the whole worth and character of genius. It is to make men look at creation and society, through another man's eyes, and communicate all that their hearts labour with, by the help of a remembered manner they learnt in the schools. It is to educate different men by one rule, and force all minds to one taste and pursuit. It comes in the way of nature, and reduces all her irregularities, crooks, and violence, her endless change, into straightness, smoothness, and harmony. It is to make the difference of country, of habits, and institutions wholly ineffectual as to literature, and to bring the native of the mountains and plains, of the inland and coast, to a lifeless similarity of taste.

Where is a mind, thus trained, to get its food and excitement? It is irksome and exhausting to walk in the dusty track

of an earlier traveller, especially when the whole world, in "morning freshness," lies open to the observing, intrepid, and ardent. Their refreshment is in toils and adventures of their own seeking. Their imaginations are filled with bright forms of unattained excellence, kindling enthusiasm and hope, for a man to dream about, when he grows tired of what others have done, and burns to make more perfect what he attempts himself. Such men owe their power over the reader, chiefly to something all their own in their notice of things, their manner, feelings, partialities, and taste. There is a savour of genius and individuality in all they say. They write from the heart, and we know them every where. They sit alone and work by themselves, leaving friends unconsulted, enemies neglected, and doing nothing, merely because it has been pointed out. They speak with freedom and infant fearlessness, as if they were alone in the world, and had all to themselves. They are never dried up by the fear that nature is failing, but feel that something is left for them every where.

The imitator, the man who gets his stock of thought, and sentiment of beauty from books, is cautious, constrained, and modelled throughout. Every thing, even to his enthusiasm, seems disciplined and artificial. He will have no sins of overgrowth to repent of. He seems under a careful process of emaciation, to keep in the fashion of grace and slenderness. His business is to select and trim, where others, with the prodigality of invention, have thrown heaps and masses. He bur-nishes old jewels or sets them anew, and submits cheerfully to other labours about as generous and nourishing to a hungry mind. When he is among the great, either of the living or dead, he does not feel himself in society. He does not come within the touch of greatness. There is no friendly action of other minds on his own—no level on which they can meet, and be happy and useful together. He goes as a worshipper, to wonder and obey, not as an equal, to question, value, and surpass. Is this the way to make writers of whom a nation is to be proud, or who shall be happy from themselves? The reader will tell you that works fashioned by models, or infected with books, are but old stories, the more tedious for the finish and elegance which is intended to make up for freedom and originality. They have no carelessness nor waste thought about them—no indication that the mind was the

lighter and happier for throwing off its constant growth. The writer has the stiff, genteel way of a man who is trying to entertain strangers, and is afraid of committing himself, and so prepares himself for the occasion. There is none of that gracious, fearless familiarity which one feels with those of his own home, whom he has seen every hour, and whose characters have rather grown upon him than been studied.

If the borrowers and imitators are only encouraged, the swarm will go on thickening. There is enough now in the stores of poetry, heaped up by others, to serve them for ages. They need not once look out of doors to see things for themselves. There are rules for versification, laws of taste, books of practical criticism, and approved standards of language, to make one go right and safely. And surely it is very easy for men (except those who have the indignant freedom of genius,) to write with such helps. Besides, it looks hard now-a-days, to be original, when so many have already gone over the land of poetry, and soiled and made common all that lay on the surface, or in secret. Alas, when the world grows rich, heirs will be indolent; and we should not wonder at it. The habit of living on other minds, naturally creates a spirit of self indulgence, and at last of weak timidity. Instead of being kindled into effort by what others have done, the heart sinks into cowardly admiration. It is content to relish what it dares not rival. It sets much by a refined, artificial taste, and thinks it enough to be exquisite in criticism, and eloquent in praise. You will see idolaters leaning upon the broken columns of ancient Temples, or in ecstasies before pictures and statues. The student sits at his window with a book before him, but he never looks out upon the fields. Knowledge must now be drawn from libraries and collections. The difficulties of acquiring which were once encountered, are now done away, and with them the wholesome and invigorating labour. We need not confound ourselves any longer in the wastes and thickets, which our fathers so eagerly plunged into. We have masters and schools at our very doors, to teach us every thing, and to reduce every thing to system and simplicity. Here then is the very mischief of learning—the way to turn great men into confectioners and second-hand caterers. Their minds are surfeited with what other men have said, and toiled hard and all alone, to come at. No wonder that they grow sickly, acquiescing, and unproductive.

Let us just look at one or two ways, in which freedom and originality of mind are assailed or endangered. The first is by inculcating an excessive fondness for the ancient classicks, and asserting their supremacy in literature. By some means or other, the ancients have exerted an enormous influence among literary men, and in nations too, that have had hardly any thing of real congeniality with them. And many a lover of his own home, of the domestick fame and character of his country, has, in his fits of vexation, been tempted to wish that the Barbarians had either done their work more faithfully among the fair fabricks of Greece and Rome, or else left those illustrious nations to live, and provoke the rest of the world to independent greatness, instead of being their school or nurse. As it now is, the old nations survive, in a sort of mixed state of grandeur and desolation. We grow tender among ruins and fragments. We love to soften down the errors and grossness of the fallen, and to extol and venerate the remains of their greatness, without making a very scrupulous estimate of its real worth. The grave-yard is common ground, where the living from every land may come together. There is no rancour nor heartburning there. We can all give praise with generous complacency, when no pretensions are set up. The Romans worshipped Greece, after they had conquered her.

Besides, the earliest nations in letters have a sort of patriarchal claim to the reverence of those who come after. Nothing remains of them but their finished and best works. We have no records of their early attempts and failures—nothing to inspire pity, to lessen admiration, or to encourage us when we fail. They seem to have started up at once, as if by an “over-night creation,” into elegance and beauty, full of the ease, delight, and earnestness of men who draw directly from nature. They are set off from the earlier world, and connected with every after age, by appearing to be the very beginners of literature. They become the lights and helps of other nations, who are slower and later in attention to the mind—And even when their followers have surpassed their guides, and become quite equal to looking about, and making a fortune for themselves, it is still hard to throw off the veneration and deference which all have felt, and which gives them something common in their taste, pride, and obligations.

The boy at school (in the best, but most complying hours of his life) is set to work upon the ancient classicks. He hears and reads of the god-like people, who began and finished the world's literature. This is taken in with his rudiments, and along with it, indifference towards his own language, which he acquired as unconsciously as he grew, and thinks too familiar for study or respect, while every thing ancient is brought home to him in solemnity and wonders, and fastens itself upon him more closely than his prayers.

The effect of this is, in many cases, to make what is foreign, artificial, and uncongenial, the foundation of a man's literary habits, ambition, and prejudices. It is hardly possible that a man, thus trained and dependent, should not lose self respect, and come to think every thing vulgar at home.

But it ought to be remembered, that the question is not upon the merits of the ancients, or any models whatever. Men will always settle this matter for themselves, according to their own taste and feelings. What we contend for is, that the literature of a country is just as domestick and individual, as its character or political institutions. Its charm is its nativeness. It is made for home, to be the luxury of those who have the feeling and love of home, and whose characters and taste have been formed there. No matter for rudeness, or want of system and schools. It is enough that all is our own, and just such as we were made to have and relish. A country then must be the former and finisher of its own genius. It has, or should have, nothing to do with strangers. They are not expected to feel the beauty of your old poetical language, depending as it does on early and tender associations; connecting the softer and ruder ages of the country, and inspiring an inward and inexplicable joy, like a tale of childhood. The stranger perhaps is only alarmed or disgusted by the hoarse and wild musick of your forests, or sea-shore, by the frantick superstition of your fathers, or the lovely fairy scenes, that lie far back in the mists of your fable. He cannot feel your pride in the splendid barbarism of your country, when the mind was in health and free, and the foundations of your character and greatness laid for ever. All these things are for the native. They help to give a character to his country and her literature, and he loves them too well, to be concerned at the world's admiration or contempt.

So long then as a country is proud of itself, it will repel every encroachment upon its native literature. Improvements will offer themselves under a thousand forms. Intimacy with other nations, especially if they are polished, and the leaders of fashion, will tempt men to imitate them in every thing. But a nation should keep itself at home, and value the things of its own household. It will have but feeble claims to excellence and distinction, when it stoops to put on foreign ornament and manner, and to adopt from other nations, images, allusions, and a metaphorical language, which are perfectly unmeaning and sickly, out of their own birth-place. The most polished will be the dreariest ages of its literature. Its writers will be afraid to speak the language that God has given them, till they have mingled the rough torrent with the allaying streams of a softer region. A strange idiom will be introduced into style. And the whole literature of a country will be mere gaudy patchwork, borrowed from every region that has any beauty to lend.

It may be well too just to hint, that it is not foreign models alone which are to be feared. We must also be shy of ourselves. For men of real genius and independence will sometimes introduce dangerous novelties, and make errors and corruptions popular and contagious, however short-lived they may prove. And besides this, there is good reason to fear that every country, as it falls into luxury and refinement, will be doomed to have an Augustan age, a classical era of its own, when fine writers will determine, what shall be correct taste, pure language, and legitimate poetry. A domestick master may not be as alarming as a foreigner, and long before a man has ceased to study and love the early literature of his country, he may expect to hear that the old language is barbarous and obsolete, and rejected by all chaste authors, who wish to keep the national literature uniform and pure. As to all this, a man must judge for himself. And one would think, that if there must be models, a writer would do well to go as near to the original as possible, even to the very fathers of poetry. If there is luxury for him in such society, and if his books can find readers, in spite of the old cast about them, let him turn to the rougher and more intrepid ages of his country, before men troubled themselves about elegance or plan, and wrote right on as they felt, even though they were uttering a thought for the first time, feeling probably very little concern

whether a softer age laughed at or worshipped them—whether they were to be ranked among the classicks, or barbarians of poetry, whether theirs was to be called an Augustan era, or merely the plain old English days of Elizabeth.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

On Geological Systems.

SIR,

If the following pages will do for your Journal, I offer them for insertion. They are the amount of a conversation reduced to writing, and of course necessarily superficial and imperfect. A lady, whose reading was more among the lighter books of literature, than the ponderous ones of science, having met with some allusions to the *Vulcanian* and *Nep-tunian* theories of the earth, and mention of *Vulcanists* and *Neptunists*, requested of me an explanation of these systems. Without pretensions to any profound knowledge of geology, I should have hesitated at the task, if a very learned dissertation had been necessary; but trusting that my fair inquirer had too little acquaintance with science, to expose my errors, if she would, and too much good nature to do it, if she could, I attempted a brief exposition of the subject.

Among the heathen divinities, there were two of great eminence, whose names have been borrowed by geologists, as very convenient to designate their different theories. Neptune was the God of the sea, the brother of Jupiter, and drove about the capricious element he ruled, in a large shell, drawn by sea horses, of a breed which are now extinct, except in the designs of artists. He carried in his hand a fork with three prongs, called a trident. As the God himself has not been seen for some centuries, a very famous nation, who have driven very furiously over the ocean, without the aid of horses, had long claimed to be in possession of his trident, which has been called, “the sceptre of the globe.” The world has generally acceded to this pretension, though having driven with too much violence, and too little caution against some who were travelling the same route, it is supposed, that a younger nation obtained one of the prongs in a short scuffle, which ensued at last, in consequence of frequent altercation.

Vulcan was more renowned for his skill, than his good fortune. He formed a very brilliant, but unfortunate matrimonial connexion. His principal employment was forging thunderbolts for Jupiter, who, like other tyrants, was often in a passion. Our fellow townsman, Dr. Franklin, has protected us by one of his discoveries, from the skill of Vulcan, and the force of Jupiter ; and as he also contributed to establish the liberty of our country, both these exploits have been happily commemorated in a well known line in Latin, which I need not repeat.

Vulcan's workshops were situated near Mount Etna, and he employed a number of gigantick journeymen, with only one eye in the centre of their forehead, called Cyclops. A very particular account of these people, and the adventures of Ulysses among them, you will find in the 9th book of that most amusing poem, the Odyssey. It is impossible not to remark here, how much the poets can make out of the simplest materials. This story of Vulcan, his labours, and labourers, are all derived from one of the earliest iron founders, whose workmen, to protect their eyes from the intense heat of the metal, wore a leather mask, which had one large hole in the centre ; Homer transformed these poor blacksmiths into monsters, and made them immortal.

Now Geologists are divided into two parties: the first say that this globe was formed by the agency of fire, and they are called *Vulcanists*, from the God of fire. The others maintain that water was the agent, and are called *Neptunists*, from the God of that element. Perhaps you may obtain some idea of their different theories, by applying them alternately to the formation of that cumbrous, magnificent, wedding cake, which stands on the table near us, with all its ornaments of gilded box, motto shells, sugared almonds, &c. &c. In reasoning on its formation, of which I really know little more than of that of the earth, which groans under its weight ; I will apply, alternately, the Neptunian and Vulcanian theories, to account for its construction. The lady here inquired, whether these theories did not interfere with the Mosaick account of the creation ? I explained to her, that there was nothing irreverent in these investigations ; that in the various departments of the Old Testament, the most pious and learned theologians were undecided what was exactly historical, metaphorical, or inspired—That many parts of it were mysterious, and the whole an object of faith and

eneration—That men of science, who should be the last to interfere with any thing religious, conducted their inquiries without any reference to that sacred relation. They reasoned precisely, as if no such account existed.

To commence with the Vulcanian theory, a geologist of this school would say, that water was not an adequate agent to produce the effects we witness; that there must be a great central fire to have formed this composition; that the surface exhibits the most evident marks of fusion, and in penetrating beneath it, there is a black carbonaceous crust, which is evidently the product of fire; that if it had been the product of water, instead of the irregular lava which now covers its surface, vegetation would have appeared the moment the surface was exposed, and before it could be wholly desiccated. Whereas, the slow decomposition of a volcanick surface, is here shewn by the scanty vegetation that appears; besides, the specimens of gold in a pure state, must have been the product of fire. It is quite clear, that if it had not been through the agency of the principle of calorick, which pervades and animates all creation, this production would never have existed.

The Neptunist would say, that there were too many appearances to leave any doubt about the agency of water: the amygdaloids, mandelsteins, or almond stones, by their rounded and washed appearance, had evidently been rolled in the water, and the incrustation that surrounded them was the mere induration of the deposit, in which they had been left, after the water had receded; that a further convincing proof might be found in those fossile shells, which would have been calcined by the fire. These shells resemble no species exactly,* that are now found, and were evidently the tenants of those ancient waters, which once covered the globe, and have since been exhaled or contained within the bounds of the different oceans. Besides, if water had not held the whole globe in solution, how could they thus be found on its highest surfaces, and imbedded so deeply in the interior, forming whole masses of zoolite strata. My interesting inquirer here became impatient, which the reader may wonder had not been the case sooner, and said, that as this bridal cake was notoriously made with the help of both fire and water, why may not the geologists agree

* For the satisfaction of the learned reader, I suggest that this shell comes the nearest to the species *Uva*, genus *turbo*, *cochlea alba ventriosa*, *bidens*, *Strys eminentibus*, *exasperata*.

to admit the intervention of both, and thus put an end to the dispute—My dear friend, this would be fatal! science is like love, if there are too many disputes, it expires in a war of words; but if it never excites any discussion, it will be extinguished in apathy.

WERNER.

To the Editor.



FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

In the last number of the North-American Review, there is a letter from two Clergymen, directors of a theological seminary in New-York, which struck me with astonishment. I do not pretend to interfere with the policy of the Institutions of that State; if they choose to appropriate funds for the support of a school conducted in such a manner, however contrary it may be to the spirit of our civil and political constitutions; the patrons of it may still persevere. But, I have noted the occurrence for the purpose of congratulating the state of Massachusetts, that through the wisdom of their legislature they are not disgraced by a school, where such despotism can be exercised. The Andover Institution, attempted unsuccessfully, to obtain the same privilege, which was wisely refused. I am told that the very same doctrine, which drew down such an unrelenting decree on the unfortunate individual, would at Andover, have been favourably received. The College of the Sorbonne, of the Jesuists, or of the Holy Office, could not have exercised a more summary vengeance, or one dictated in a spirit of greater arrogance. Is it then compatible with our ideas of liberty, or the rights of conscience, that a power thus to punish a mere matter of opinion, unconnected with any violation of morality, should receive support and protection?

Allow me to copy for the use of these mild theologians, the following passage from a certain poet called Shakspeare, it is taken from one of his profane plays, entitled, *Measure for Measure*.

———Oh it is excellent
To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous,
To use it like a giant——
Could great men thunder,
As Jove himself does, Jove would ne'er be quiet,
For every pelting, petty officer
Would use his heaven for thunder; nothing but thunder,
Merciful heaven!

Thou rather with thy sharp and sulphurous bolt,
 Split'st the unwedgeable and gnarled oak,
 Than the soft myrtle : O, but man ! proud man,
 (Drest in a little brief authority ;
 Most ignorant of what he's most assured,
 His glossy essence) like an angry ape ;
 Plays such fantastick tricks before high heaven,
 As make the angels weep.—

AN ENEMY TO PERSECUTION.

To the Editor.



Letters from Europe mention, that it is supposed to be the intention of Lord Byron, who has left England for the East, to join *Lady Hester Stanhope*, in Arabia. As the remarkable adventures of this distinguished lady may not be known to many of our readers, we copy the following account of them from a late French paper.

Lady Hester Stanhope, who belongs to one of the first families in England, merits a place among the most celebrated and intrepid travellers of the present age. This lady, the niece, the friend, and intimate companion of the great *Pitt*, who was not less attached to him by conformity of mind than by the ties of blood. She enjoys a pension from her country. *Pitt*, who, as is known, died without fortune, left to his nieces, poor like himself, a few lines, in which he recommended them to the generosity of the people of England. After the death of her uncle, *Lady Hester* formed the project of travelling in the Levant. She first repaired to Malta, and from thence proceeded to Constantinople. Wishing afterwards to make a pilgrimage to Palestine, she sailed for the Holy Land, but had the misfortune to be shipwrecked off the isle of Rhodes. Cast on a barren rock, she seemed to be destined to perish of hunger ; but an English ship, which appeared on the following day, took her on board and conveyed her to Syria. There she travelled in all directions, accompanied by Mr. Bruce, who has just been tried for the part he took in the escape of Lavalette. She spent several years wandering among the ruins of Palmyra and Hieropolis, and exploring the valleys of Mount Lebanon. Living for whole months on rice and water, and accustomed to the frugality of oriental habits, from being feeble and debilitated, she became a strong and vigorous Amazon. According to letters which she has addressed to her family in

England, she is now at the head of three tribes of Bedouin Arabs, who regard her as a being of superiour order. She has had several children, whom she was fond of, brought to her from England; and she declares, that she will never forsake the land of the sun, to breathe the humid and cloudy atmosphere of Great Britain. *Boston Daily Advertiser.*



FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Extract of a letter to the Editor, from a friend in Germany.

“The Baron Munchhausen (pronounced nearly Minkhhowzen, so famous for his remarkable adventures, lived in the neighbourhood of Gottingen, and was of an ancient, noble family.—He was a great lover of the chase, and was famous for telling the stories which are at present under his name, whereby he acquired the very flattering appellation of Lying Munchhausen, by which he is now universally called. He has not long been dead. Though the work so extensively known as his *Life and Adventures* is written in the first person, it is not from the worthy Baron himself, but was given to the world under the following circumstances. A person of the name of Raspe, about fifty years since, was keeper of antiquities in the electoral collection at Cassel, the capital city of the late kingdom of Westphalia, and is about thirty miles from the residence of our Baron. Raspe was a person of very good education, and extremely well qualified for the place he held. He was however expensive in his mode of life, and fond of extravagance. Having incurred debts, which his salary did not enable him to pay, he applied his collection to the same purposes, which his worthy successors the French commissaries at a later period have much more extensively done, and plundered it of several gems. The fraud was discovered, but he succeeded in escaping to England. Here he sustained himself sometime, as a waiter in a Coffee-house in London, learning by degrees the English language, but not losing the remembrances of home.—For the credit of his native land, and to raise himself from the servant’s hall of a coffee house, he committed to writing the marvellous adventures of his distinguished countryman the Baron, and the life of Munchhausen appeared from the Eng-

lish Press.—Though Germany had suffered a foreign land to anticipate her in this precious contribution to Literature, it was not slow in doing what could be done by way of amends.—A translation was immediately undertaken by a Professor of the University at Gottingen, and the valuable work soon appeared in a German Dress.—The translator was no other than the poet Burger so precious, for his *Leonora*, to the lovers of the horrible; and that fine genius, who had enriched poetry with this frightful pilgrimage of the poor Damsel to the graveyard in Hungary, now bestowed on Biography the memorable suspension of the horse to the steeple, and the musical accumulation in the Post-boy's horn.—Our Baron however appeared to think himself less favoured than his neighbors, by this edifying production; and threatened Dietrich, the publisher, printer to the University of Gottingen, with a process. This however never took place, and in the course of time, notwithstanding the moving perils he had encountered, and the Biographer had described, the Baron died.—The name however is by no means extinct, and it is among the most famous in Hanover.—Munchhausen was the celebrated minister, for Hanover, of George the II, and it was he who founded and reared the University of Gottingen, and caused it in a few years to take rank of the establishments, which have stood for centuries.

“I do not know, my dear Sir, whether it will be interesting to the American publick to hear, that the second volume of Professor A. Boeckh's *Pindar* has appeared. It is a sizeable quarto volume. The first contained the text the present treats of the metres, and is thought in Germany the most successful investigation of this subject, that has appeared.—The metres are illustrated by their connexion with the musick, to which the Odes were adapted; and the whole inquiry of Professor Boeckh into the subject of the Greek musick and its metrical relations is equally masterly and original. It is understood that he is aided, in this edition, which quite surpasses all former editions of *Pindar*, by Professor Dissen of Gottingen.—Professor Boeckh is of the University at Berlin and is employed in conjunction with other learned men, and under the patronage of the Prussian government, on a new edition of all the Greek Inscriptions.—He is also engaged with Heindorf, and Schleiermacher, the latter so celebrated for his German translation of Plato, on a complete edition of this Author.”

THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Rhoda—A novel.—By the author of “*Things by their right names*,” “*Plain Sense*,” &c. 2 vols. 12mo. Boston—Published by Wells & Lilly.

THIS novel presents a lively and pretty faithful picture of fashionable life. Its moral influence is favourable to virtue. The first deviations from principle are well delineated in the most conspicuous character, and the progressive steps, from brisk animal spirits to levity, folly, disregard of obligations, imprudence, and finally to remorse and misfortune, are skilfully traced. This character is a susceptible, brilliant, fanciful woman, whose dispositions are always good, but her conduct often wrong. She makes just reflections, but has not sufficient strength of character to execute her good purposes, and is continually liable to be diverted from propriety and rectitude, by the artful who are her inferiours in point of understanding. She is, in short, one of those lovely bewitching creatures, whom every body admires and excuses, but whose conduct nobody approves.

The work is not remarkable for spirit and animation. We cannot promise the reader that his interest will not flag a little in the first part of the second volume, but we can assure him, that he will be well compensated for persisting in the perusal. It belongs to the numerous and constantly increasing class of productions, in which fiction is brought home to daily occurrences and observations. Readers are apt to complain of such, that they are monotonous and ordinary; they do not sufficiently abound in “moving incidents,” frightful situations, and apprehensions of direful events which never happen. We do not affect to proscribe all the agitating fictions, with which the novel-reading fair daily distress themselves. Feigned as well as real sufferings may sometimes have a salutary influence, and variety is desirable for its own sake, and then an occasional interruption of the more gentle undulations of emotion, by the

whirls of transport, or the storms of the turbulent passions, may leave the mental atmosphere more lucid and serene. But we would not always be tossed and tempest driven—let us sometimes be satisfied with the face of nature in its more usual state, not violently agitated, nor yet perfectly tranquil. It requires greater progress in the arts to exhibit with this aspect, it demands greater skill and delicacy of execution in the artist, and an improved susceptibility and taste in the observer. This truth is no less apparent in other arts, than in that of writing novels. Young belles, who have not been trained into a perception of real beauty and elegance, by judicious mothers and governesses, flutter out of the boarding school in the most brilliant hues, and by their glitter, dazzle the eyes, and turn the heads of the poor beaux, not yet far advanced in their teens. Painters, in the early period of their art, are apt to choose extravagant subjects and situations; and having set them forth in glaring colours, astonish the well-meaning multitude. In every art, the sort of specimens which children and the unskilful most admire, is the same with the masterpieces of a ruder state. The writers of fictitious narratives began with superhuman characters, and preternatural incidents, and thus kindled the admiration and curiosity of their rude readers, who would have gone to sleep over a probable story, elegantly told. Authors and readers early quitted the wild regions of giants, and dragons, and enchantments; but a great distance was to be passed over, before they could arrive at their proper home, among natural objects and real persons. Each alternately led the way, the author now guiding the publick taste, and now being directed by it. Their perils and disasters, by the way, have not been few; for they have often been shut up in Gothick towers, thrown into uncomfortable dungeons, pursued by apparitions, and were very ill used by monks in convents, and by robbers in deserts. Even after infernal, personages and miraculous events had been abandoned, and it was required of an author to account for what he caused to take place in a more satisfactory way, the imaginations of men were for a long time affected by the terrors with which they had been surrounded, and they often mistook a figure in a piece of tattered tapestry for a spirit, fresh from the nether world, and would convert a crazy chateau into an enchanted castle, and indulge for a time in

the illusion, that there was something beyond the laws of nature, in their surprises, successes, and failures. At length all pretence of mystery ceased, and writers, who do not professedly lay their scenes beyond the limits of experience, must accept for machinery, such as they are, the laws of nature, and the passions of men. They are not confined to what is common and familiar. Strong passions still exist, and extraordinary events occur, and whatever is real, may well find a place in fiction. Many are led, by boldness and energy of genius, to prefer them, while others resort to them through weakness, and make use of them—that they may create that interest by their incidents, which they are unable to produce by a skilful management; they dress what they serve up, but rudely, but then they make up, as well as they can for this defect, by the number and profusion of dishes. The modern novels are generally better calculated to produce delight and improvement, than wonder and agitation. They answer all the useful purposes of a lesson, without its formality and tediousness. In them, we have the most minute and finished representations of manners. The privilege of using narrative or dialogue, and the liberty of detailing the most minute incidents, and marking the most trifling occurrences, provided a regard be had to grace and propriety, give the writer more freedom and play, than he is allowed in any other kind of composition, and enable him to bring out and exhibit those subtle and evanescent accompaniments, to which characters and actions owe a greater part of their beauty and deformity.

We shall not proceed to analyze and review this book, as we can say nothing of it which will not occur to almost every reader, and our purpose in making it the occasion of these few remarks, will be accomplished, if we shall add something towards drawing to it that attention, which we think it deserves.

Natural and Statistical view, or, picture of Cincinnati and the Miami country, illustrated by maps. With an Appendix, containing observations on the late earthquakes, the Aurora Borealis, and the South West wind. By Daniel Drake : Cincinnati, printed by Looker and Wallace, 1815. 12mo. pp. 251.

We have perused this work with much satisfaction. The fine country which it describes, has generally furnished a theme for vague declamation, and extravagant praise. Its natural advantages are so considerable, and its prosperity so rapid, that even a just picture of it would appear like flattery. Though a very favourable, it is a fairer delineation, than any we have seen of the Western country ; its advantages are displayed without concealment of its defects, and as a general description, it will be valuable to those who wish to form a correct idea of that region. Its geographical, civil, physical and progressive state, are described with judgment and intelligence ; and an account of its soil, climate and productions, are given in sufficient detail for all the purposes of common inquiry.

In looking at the map of those vast plains, between the sources of the Missouri and the Mississippi, and the Mountains of the Atlantick sea coast ; and imagining them covered with a population free and civilized, which will probably happen in the course of another century ; the mind is lost in reverie, on the immensity of the subject. One reflection must strike every one : the English Language and the Christian faith are destined to be spoken and professed by a larger portion of mankind, than ever yet expressed themselves in any one language, or ever worshipped under any one form of religion. Here will be a contrast to the population of Asia, as numerous as that, yet enjoying freedom, civilization, a beneficent religion, and all the stores of science and learning. These future states may go on in security, multiplying their riches by their industry, and enjoying all the refinements of civilization, without fear of any external invader. There will be no store-house of barbarians in the North, to ravage their fortunate country ; and if they can avoid civil war among themselves, they will have no other war to fear. But we must abandon these excursions into futurity, to take up the work before us.

Dr. Drake commences his work with a description of the Ohio River; this we shall extract, and also his general description of North America, from the fourth section, which treats of the climate: both passages are interesting, and furnish a fair specimen of his style, and his talent for description and generalizing.

“ *The river Ohio* is formed by the union of the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers at Pittsburgh, in latitude (according to Mr. de Ferrer) $40^{\circ} 26' 15''$ north, and in longitude from Washington $2^{\circ} 56'$ west. It passes, for a short distance, through the state of Pennsylvania, and then constitutes the line of division between the states of Virginia and Kentucky on the south, and the state of Ohio, the Indiana and Illinois Territories on the north. In latitude $37^{\circ} 00' 21''$ north, and longitude $11^{\circ} 56' 22''$ west (from the mean observations of Ellicot and de Ferrer) it joins the Mississippi, having meandered in a west-south-west course upwards of 900 miles. The Allegheny, however, which, at its origin in the mountains of that name, interlocks with the Susquehanna and Genessee, and whose length may be estimated at 300 miles, is to be regarded as the Ohio under another name, making the entire length of this great river upwards of 1200 miles—almost three times the length of the Susquehanna, including the Chesapeake Bay, and four times the length of either the Potomac, Delaware, Hudson or Connecticut river. Its width, at Cincinnati, which is nearly equidistant from Pittsburgh and its confluence with the Mississippi, is 534 yards; which may be assumed as its mean breadth. Its annual range from low to high water, at the same place, is about 50 feet; the extreme range nearly 10 feet more. When lowest, it may be forded in several places above Louisville. The greatest depressions are generally in August, September and October; the greatest rises in December, March, May and June. Its mean annual temperature, 8 inches beneath the surface, at Cincinnati, is nearly 56 degrees, its greatest summer heat 82 degrees, and its lowest winter heat, 32 degrees. Near Pittsburgh, it is almost every winter frozen over for several weeks; this has even been the case for more than 400 miles below that town. Generally, the navigation upwards is suspended by floating ice, during eight or ten weeks of the winter. Its current, when of a mean height, is estimated at three miles

an hour; when higher, and rising, it is more; when very low, it does not exceed two miles. Its valley has the medium breadth of one mile; in some places it is contracted to half that width, and in others, as at the junction of the tributary streams, expanded to a mile and a half, or two miles.

“It is generally serpentine, and presents to the eye of the voyager an uniform succession of hills and declivities, which display in spring, the blooming elegance of a luxuriant garden; in summer, the rich verdure of a lofty and boundless forest; and in autumn, a splendid tissue of green, gold, and crimson foliage. In winter, an occasional precipice, with a brow overhung by red cedars, exhibits considerable grandeur—but variety and sublimity are not predominant features of this scenery; and the pleasure it affords to the traveller of taste, is chiefly referable to its beauty, freshness and tranquillity.”

“The Ohio contains about a hundred islands,* or one for every nine miles. In a space of one hundred miles, however, between the states of Kentucky and Ohio, there are none. A few of these islands are cultivated; many are too small and barren for advantageous improvement, and a large proportion are liable to occasional inundation. They form no serious obstruction to the navigation of the river, except in low water, when the bars and ripples connected with them, are somewhat dangerous.”

“*North-America* is traversed by two ranges of high mountains—the Allegheny and Chippewan. They are found near the eastern and western sides of the continent, widely separated; but resemble each other in diverging from the meridian, in opposite directions, at the same angle—in lying about equal distances from the Atlantick and Pacifick oceans—and in preserving, throughout their whole extent, a parallelism with the coast, to which they are respectively contiguous. The western, or Chippewan range, is the highest and most extensive; originating near the arctick circle, and spreading into elevated table land in Mexico. The Alleghenies commence immediately south of the Gulph of St. Lawrence, in the 48th degree of north latitude; and are lost in the 34th or 35th degree, between the state of Georgia and the Mississippi river. In the latitude of Cincinnati, these ranges are about 25°, or 1300 miles asunder. The intermediate country is bounded

* See Cramer's Navigator.

on the south by the Gulph of Mexico, and on the north by a chain of lakes stretching to the north-west, from the 42d to the 60th degree of latitude.

“From this arrangement of mountains and lakes, results a division of North-America into several great regions: 1. The mountainous, consisting of two distinct and distant ranges; neither of them so high as to be covered with snow in the summer. 2. The western maritime, lying along the Pacifick ocean. 3. The eastern maritime, extending from the Alleghenies to the Atlantick ocean, and naturally divisible into three sections—the northern, middle, and southern. The rivers of the first, run nearly from north to south; those of the second and third, from north-west to south-east, leaving the mountains at right angles. 4. The lakes, and immense wilderness situated beyond them. 5. The valley or basin of the Mississippi, bounded on the west, east, and north, by the regions just named. Being thus surrounded, the climate of this extensive tract must necessarily participate of all those which are adjacent. The mountain districts produce some of its peculiarities; but more are perhaps attributable to the region of snow, and ice, and half frozen lakes, in the north.

“Considered without reference to the others, the central or Mississippi district, may be characterized as a plain from 800 to 1000 feet above the ocean—depressed in the middle from north to south—cut in various directions into numerous valleys, by streams of every width—generally covered with trees in the eastern, and with herbaceous plants in the western parts—arid and rolling in the south-east; dry and level in the west; marshy to the north, and wet to the south.”

The result of the meteorological observations, proves that the climate of Ohio, like that of the Atlantick States, is subject to great and sudden changes and violent extremes: the thermometer is found on the average to descend twice below 0 every winter at Cincinnati; and to be at 90 fourteen days in each summer. The spring, as in every other part of North-America, is variable and capricious: the process of vegetation commences six weeks later at some seasons than at others, and if it begins in February, as from the latitude of the country it should do, it is commonly suspended, by the intervention of cold, and vegetation will remain stationary for weeks. This evil is felt in a greater

or less degree in all parts of the United States. It is the greatest evil of our climate, and one we can never escape from; although the climate on the average will necessarily be ameliorated by the destruction of the forests, and the cultivation of the soil. The whole of the section on climate, is valuable; we shall extract from it his account of the South-West wind, the Humidity, and the Indian Summer.

“*The south-west.*—This wind, which, as we have just seen, prevails on the Ohio three fourths of the year, exhibits two different characters, or is divisible into two varieties—the *humid* and the *arid*. The former of these is characterized by prevailing throughout the night; by generally continuing two or three days after its commencement; by alternating with the north-east wind; by sinking the barometer more than any other ærial current; and by always causing clouds, and generally rain, which is often profuse. The arid south-west commences between sun-rise and 10 o'clock in the morning. It is at first very gentle, and increases in force with the progress of the day, until 4 or 5 o'clock in the evening, when it begins to subside. About sun-set it ceases, and the succeeding night is clear and serene. This is the predominant wind in the hottest and driest weather, with which indeed it is identified in the mind of every observer in this country. Its prevalence, in comparison with the other variety, is perhaps as eight or ten to one. It is seldom attended with an atmosphere altogether cloudless, but never produces any other form of rain than a thunder shower. It sinks the barometer less than the humid south-west, but raises the thermometer higher than any other wind. It is not known whether at present it prevails more or less than upon the first settlement of the western states.”*

“*Humidity.*—The fogs of the Ohio and its tributary streams are most common from May to October, inclusively. They are generally succeeded by fair and hot days, and are seldom seen in cloudy or windy mornings. They are too dense to admit the view from one side of the Ohio to the other; but generally suffer dissipation before eight o'clock. In winter they are occasionally seen and admired under the name of *visible vapour*. When of this kind, they arise to a great height, in dense and circumscribed columns. The thermometer is on

* For some remarks on Mr. Volney's theory of this wind, see Appendix, No. II.

these occasions, for the most part, at or below cipher; or at least the air is much colder than the water.

"The dew, in the woody valleys of this country, is so copious in the summer and early autumn, as to be felt before sun-set. In the course of the night it sprinkles from the leaves like drops of rain; but in more elevated and open situations, its quantity is much less.

"Mr. Ellicot* has pronounced the country between the Ohio and lake Erie, to be moister than the Atlantick states. His observations, however, were made in the depths of the forest, and cannot therefore be compared with those made in a settled country. It is said that iron and brass become tarnished in a shorter time at Cincinnati than in Pennsylvania; but the difference, I apprehend, is not very great. There is no difficulty at this place in keeping surgeons' instruments from rusting; linen well dried, and kept in drawers, may afterwards be used with as little airing as in the eastern states; and musketoes along the Ohio are uncommon. The summer of 1814 formed an exception to this statement. During that rainy season, most of the books in the libraries of the town, and dried specimens of plants kept in a close herbarium, for the first time became more or less mouldy, and musketoes were numerous for many weeks. Upon the whole, the diminution of moisture which follows the clearing and cultivation of our wood lands, is such, as to support the conclusion, that when the country shall be extensively opened, its atmosphere will become as dry as any part of the Union."

"*Indian Summer.*—In the autumn of every year, we have a period to which this appellation is affixed. It generally succeeds to rain or snow, and severe frost; beginning in October or November, and continuing for two or three weeks, with an occasional storm. But the atmosphere is, for the most part, dry, serene and smoky, through which the sun and moon exhibit in the morning and evening a face of darkened crimson. The verdure of the forest fades away, or passes into the countless varieties of brown, red and yellow, which give to the surrounding scenery a dull and sombre aspect. The occurrence of rain, with a north-west wind, at length suddenly dispels the gloom, strips the wood of its remaining foli-

* Philosophical Transactions, vol. iv.

age, and introduces winter, with a transparent and cheering atmosphere.

“The effect of this peculiar atmosphere on hypochondriacks, though less in degree, is similar to that produced by the November fogs of Great Britain.

“The cause of this smokiness is supposed to be the conflagration, by the Indians, of withered grass and herbs on the extensive prairies to the north-west, and hence perhaps the name of the season.”

We have never heard that this peculiarity of our climate, called the *Indian Summer*, affected hypochondriacks among us in this quarter, in the way here described. It is generally, we believe, considered as mild and agreeable. The manner of accounting for it by the conflagration of the prairies, is not entirely satisfactory. The humidity of the Western country, Dr. Drake thinks, will be lessened when the country is cleared of its forests, and there can be no doubt of this result, which however is only desirable to a certain extent; for the greatest evil which the Western country has to dread hereafter, is excessive draught. The prospective wisdom of those states, should be particularly attentive to guard, as far as possible, against this effect. Take the author's account of the south-west wind, which prevails during the spring and summer two thirds of the time; consider the plan of that country, a plain of immense extent, intersected by rivers, which flow from one to three hundred feet below the surface. Dense forests now protect the fountains of the rivers, the brooks and springs from the sun; when these forests are destroyed, a large portion of these springs and rivulets will be dried up: there are no mountains to condense the clouds, and furnish supplies from their sides. The winds from the western quarter, blended with the south or the north, prevail more than half the year; when these plains are cleared of the forests, and cultivated, it seems inevitable, that the country should be exposed to the most severe draughts; the *arid* south-west, will then pass over the country, withering and suffocating like a sirocco. General Andreossi, in his account of the Canal of Languedoc, states the increased evil of late years, that has arisen in France, from the destruction of the forests in the mountains, which protected the sources of the streams, by which means, the rivers have now become

torrents, impetuous and destructive in winter, and presenting only beds of sand in summer. The gradual effect, if not counteracted, would be to reduce the country to sterility. How much more is this to be dreaded in a country of such extent, as that between the Allegheny, and the Chippewan mountains, with no intervening hills of height, sufficient to arrest the passage of these winds. The Government should select some spots from whence the most important streams originate, and mark out a certain portion of contiguous territory, never to be alienated or stripped of its forests. This would at once provide perpetual supplies of timber, and protect the precious fountains of the rivers.

One chapter is devoted to an account of the antiquities of the Ohio, which the author regrets is so imperfect, although it contains all the principal facts which are now known; and from the objects that have been discovered in digging, it is evident, that these works were raised by an uncivilized people, though with different habits, from the present savages of that country.—We see no evidence that they were more civilized, for the mere construction of these works is no evidence of greater talent or civilization. Their history seems now involved in impenetrable obscurity. It seems most probable that they were constructed by emigrants from Mexico, who may have been so much weakened in numbers by some fatal epidemick, as to be obliged to cede the woods to their original tenants, and retreat back across the Mississippi, or were perhaps wholly cut off. But as all the objects found in these works, shew that they were constructed by some uncivilized tribes, our curiosity about their history is very much lessened. We give the conclusion of the chapter.

“Such are a few of the more extensive or curious vestiges of former population in the Miami country. They might be received as specimens of all that our state contains, were not those of the Muskingum and Sciota, from report, still more striking and complicated. A full and interesting description of what Marietta affords, may be found in the tour of the reverend Mr. Harris; but the others have only been mentioned incidentally. In consequence of this, I am induced to offer the following notice of one that I have superficially examined, although it lies beyond the boundaries of the Miami country. It

is situated ten miles from Chillicothe, on one of the steep and elevated ridges of Paint-creek, under the topographical circumstances which will be sufficiently understood, by recollecting those of the fortification last described. The wall, which had been conducted along the verge of the hill, is by estimation about a mile and a half in length. It was formed entirely of undressed freestone, brought chiefly from the streams 250 feet below, and laid up without mortar or cement of any sort. It is now, like all the walls of a similar kind which have been discovered in the western country, in a state of ruin. It exhibits the appearance of having been shaken down by an earthquake, not a single stone being found upon another, in such a manner as to indicate *that* to have been its situation in the wall. In several places there are openings, immediately opposite which, inside, lie piles of stone. In a few spots, the stones are coloured by the action of fire—are larger in quantity, and have, blended with them, lumps of cinder resembling that produced in a smith's forge. The surrounding region is abundant in iron ore; and the inhabitants tell of excavations, which they suppose to have been formerly made in search of that mineral. However this may be, it is certain that the vestiges of a great population are still discernible in the valley of Paint-creek; and that, upon the whole, there is perhaps no spot in the state of Ohio, better calculated for successful researches into the ancient condition of this country.

“I shall conclude these imperfect descriptions, with the following general observations.

“1. The Lakes and the Gulph of Mexico, appear to be the northern and southern boundaries of the region containing these ancient works. M'Kenzie does not mention them, in his voyages and travels to the north-west through the Lakes; but Bartram saw them in various places in Georgia and Florida. Between the Ohio and the Gulph, they appear to be much fewer than between that river and the Lakes. As to their north latitude, 43° may perhaps be the limit. On the east, they are bounded by the Alleghenies; on the west, they extend to the Pacifick ocean; but are found of the greatest magnitude and grandeur in some of the southern provinces of Mexico. From that country, indeed, they seem to decrease in size, beauty and regularity, in a ratio corresponding directly to the distance.

"2. They are generally found in the valleys of the larger streams; and on the most elevated plains or terraces, which are provincially termed the second and third banks, counting from the river. The first or lowest, which is also the most recently formed, along many of our streams suffers occasional inundation. When some of the works in this country were erected, these new alluvions might not have been formed, or were perhaps liable to *annual* submersion.

"3. The forests, over these remains, exhibit no appearances of more recent growth, than in other parts. Trees, several hundred years old, are in many places seen growing out of the ruins of others, which appear to have been of equal size.

"For what purpose were these works erected? It must have been obvious to the reader, that most of those which have been indicated, were for defence. What are situated on hills, were perhaps, without exception, of this kind. Concerning some of the valley remains, there are grounds for a different opinion. Those at Cincinnati, for example, exhibit so few of the characteristics of a defensive work, that General Wayne, upon attentively surveying them in 1794, was of opinion that they were not designed for that purpose. It was from the examination of valley-works only, that Bishop Madison was led to deny, that the remains of the western country were ever intended for defence; and to conclude that they were enclosures for permanent residence.* It would be precipitate to assert, that the relics found in the valleys were for this purpose; and those of the uplands for defence. But while it is certain that the latter were military posts, it seems highly probable that the former were for ordinary abode in times of peace. They were towns, and the seats of chiefs, whose perishable parts have crumbled into earth, and disappeared with the generations which formed them. Many of them might have been calculated for defence, as well as habitation; but the latter must have been the chief purpose for which they were erected. On the contrary, the hill-constructions, which are generally in the strongest military positions of the country, were designed solely for defence, in open and vigorous war.†

* It can detract nothing from the reputation of this respectable scholar, but must be regarded as confirming his hypothesis, to remark, that it is the same as that suggested by Dr. Thomas Mollyneux, concerning a part of the Danish antiquities of Ireland; in a Discourse published in 1725.

† This article was written before I had seen or even heard of that in-

"All the mounds were, I suspect, burying places; but they probably had, as such, various grades and kinds of distinction. Not many of them could have been for publick use. In the Miami country, at least, they are too small to have served for the mass of the population, at the period when they were erected. Had they been composed entirely of bones, they must have been extended beyond their present size by a single generation. But most of them contain very few bones. They were, perhaps, exclusively the tumuli and monuments of distinguished persons or families. At the same time, the larger might have served for the sites of temples; like the pyramids of the Toultecs and Aztecs in Mexico, as described by Humboldt.

"Are these vestiges referable to a nation which has suffered expulsion from this part of the continent, and become extinct, or to the ancestors of the existing Indian tribes? Professor Barton, whose knowledge of the aboriginal inhabitants of this country exceeds that of any other man, originally entertained the former of these opinions. He conceived that the Toultecs, a nation which the hieroglyphical annals of Mexico represent to have migrated across the continent from north to south, in the sixth and seventh centuries, were the people who constructed these remains. In the year 1805, Mr. Harris appeared as the advocate of a similar hypothesis; but previous to this period, the Professor seems to have changed his early opinions, and in 1796, expressed his conviction, that throughout the whole of North America, there had once been a much more numerous and civilized population than what existed when the interior was first explored by the Europeans; and which has degenerated into the present savage hordes. To this position, Dr. Williamson and Mr. Breckenridge have recently lent their support, and have given to it a high degree of plausibility. In the course of some inquiries into the ancient works of the Miami country, I have found nothing adverse to the supposition of the Professor; but several facts have appeared in its support. Of these, the only one which I shall mention is the existence, in the larger mounds, of fragments of earthen ware, which have in their composition a perfect identity with that interesting chapter in the "Views of Louisiana," where the ingenious author, Mr. Breckenridge, has much more fully and ably supported a similar opinion, the suggestion of which was first made by Professor Barton.

ricated since the discovery of America, even up to the present time, by many of the tribes low on the Mississippi. A single fact cannot establish a theory; but upon viewing this discovery, in conjunction with what has been written by the ingenious authors just cited, it must, I think, be acknowledged, that this hypothesis is rendered more plausible than any other."

It may be recollected that *Ashe's Travels* was one of the worthy authorities for the libels of the *Quarterly Review*; from the gross ignorance and absurdity of the book, we doubted if he had ever been in this country; but we found some account of him in a note, where the author is speaking of the fossil bones discovered in this region, and we copy it for the edification of those who have perused those travels, or the *Quarterly Review*.

"In the years 1802 and 3, Dr. William Goforth, with an ardour of curiosity that deserved a better reward than awaited his exertions, dug up at this place, and transported to Cincinnati, several wagon loads of these bones. They were, by the Doctor and George Turner, one of the members of the American Philosophical Society, examined attentively, and supposed to be the remains of no less than six non-descript quadrupeds, most of them gigantick! Among the rest, some of the bones of the rhinoceros were thought to be ascertained. Judge Turner made accurate drawings of the most curious of these fossils, but has been so unfortunate as to lose them.

"In the spring of the year 1803, the Doctor formed a design of transporting these bones to the Atlantick states. They reached Pittsburgh, and were there stored. Early in 1806, Professor Barton made an application to purchase them; but at that time they had attracted the attention of a foreign swindler, named *Thomas Arville*, alias *Ashe*, who obtained permission of the owner to ship them to Europe for exhibition; since which they have not been heard of. To this personal injury of a worthy individual, the miscreant has since added a libel on the American people, and a gross insult to the British nation, by the publication of a book of travels, redundant in the most puerile and malicious falsehoods."

If we should say that sound policy on the part of the State of Ohio, would now lead them rather to discourage than promote emigration to their territory ; that they have now a sufficient population, to stock their whole country in a few years ; that it would be wiser to commence now to fix their habits, institutions and character, by the force of custom and fellowship, on a sedentary population gradually advancing its numbers, without extraneous aid, than to have its whole surface agitated by the impetuous flood of emigration ; if we should say that this would conduce more to the consistence and solidity of the State, than the promiscuous introduction of new settlers, we should no doubt find that we were talking to land speculators, and not to statesmen. We have alluded to this topick however, only to suggest to the author, that in the next edition of his work he might add a very interesting chapter, in describing minutely the process of the new settlers, from their first entrance into the forest, till the farm and the village make their appearance. This is a state of things almost peculiar to this country ; highly characteristick and picturesque in its details. The emigrants from various parts of the United States as well as from Europe, proceed to their place of settlement, uncertain of the particular locality, and with very vague notions of the geography of the country. The general point of meeting however is at Pittsburgh, as the pilgrims to the Holy Land formerly met at Marseilles from different quarters of Europe. At Pittsburgh, they embark on the river, and trust their destiny to the current of the Ohio. A convenient eddy, a point of land, the entrance of a small stream, may decide the location. The spot thus selected undergoes a transformation more rapid than can be easily imagined ; in a few years the block-house, which was an outpost for protection against the savages, becomes an awkward incumbrance in the streets of a city, and the spot, where the Indian hunter had kindled a camp fire, is occupied by the furnace of a steam engine. Even the birds on their return from a summer's migration, may seek in vain for the forest in whose covert they were hatched.

The history of one of these settlements from the first encampment with a wagon, till some of the comforts of a farm are obtained, would be an interesting narration. A gentleman told us that he was at Pittsburgh a year or two since, and going to the banks of the river, he entered into conver-

sation with some emigrants. Three families which chance had brought together, their first meeting being on the banks of the stream, had purchased a boat of rude construction to float them to the place of their destination, "*the Miami country.*" Of these families one was from Cape Cod, one from Middleburgh in Vermont, and one from Troy in New-York; in the three families were twenty one children, of all ages, from infancy to manhood. The men were calm and resolute in their purpose, the women generally repining, and apprehensive, regretting what they had left, and uneasy at the uncertainty of the future. The mania for emigrations, is an epidemick that prevails occasionally with considerable violence; the natural surplus of our population may usefully seek for new territories, but in numerous instances the rash removals of many have proved only a sad delusion. They often leave a good and healthy situation for an inferior and unhealthy one; and the restless and discontented find, that in migrating from the Eastern to the Western States, from this side of the mountains to the other, that they have only changed their sky, and not their disposition. They know when they have descended the western rivers hundreds of miles, that *facilis descensus est*, but in their situation, that *revocare gradum*, is nearly impossible.

We take our leave of Dr. Drake, in recommending his work to all those who wish to obtain information about the Western country.



Historical Memoir of the war in West Florida and Louisiana in 1814-15—with an atlas. By Major A. Lacarriere Latour, principal Engineer in late the Seventh Military District United States' Army. Written originally in French, and translated for the author, by H. P. Nugent, Esq. Philadelphia: Published by John Conrad and Co. 1816. 8vo. pp. 454.

Bis Tusci Rutulos egere ad castra reversos,

Bis rejecti armis respectant terga tegentes.

Turbati fugiunt Rutuli—

Disjectique duces, desolatique manipuli,

Tuta petunt.

VIRG.

The late war has given rise to endless discussions. Whether it was glorious or disgraceful, whether it was ad-

vantageous or ruinous, are questions that have been warmly and elaborately argued in speeches and essays, and opposite conclusions, drawn by different reasoners. Whenever the debate on this subject is carried on, Federalism or Democracy, being *obligato*, to borrow a musical term, this diversity of opinion must always result ; whenever it is considered without the trammels of party, there is no difficulty in arriving at the indisputable fact, that the war was disgraceful to the administration, and glorious to the nation.

In using the term Administration, we do not confine ourselves to the mere Executive officers of the government : whenever the secret anecdotes of the times are known, it will probably be found, that the majority of these were opposed to engaging in the war ; but whether they led, or were driven, is of no consequence as to the result ; in speaking of the Administration, we include the majority of both Houses of Congress, who made the declaration. The war was disgraceful to the Administration under this comprehensive view, in being declared utterly without preparation or foresight, in taking some of the important interests of the country completely by surprise, in rashly exposing the frontiers to all the ravages of the enemy, and meanly shrinking before the idle breath of popularity, by refusing to impose taxes of the most urgent necessity ; in destroying the confidence of capitalists, by the destruction of the National Bank, and in a series of measures, that would inevitably plunge the finances of the country into fatal confusion ; in the proclamation of doubtful rights,* every one of which they abandoned ; in the plan of a campaign absurd in the extreme ; in directing all their efforts to the conquest of Canada, in which success would have been injurious to ourselves, and unimportant to the enemy ; in pursuing a line of conduct, which was intended to crush and annihilate a most powerful party in the nation, instead of endeavouring to conciliate and unite them in the hour of peril.

* We allude particularly to the subject of *impressment* ; this abuse, the very idea of which is insupportable, is now involved in doubt by our process of naturalization, and it is one of the greatest evils attending the impolitick and mischievous facility of our laws on the subject. If the question regarded only the protection of our own proper citizens, is there a man who would not wage a war of extermination rather than endure, that they should be forced by violence into the service of a foreign State ?

The arrogance of this course was only equalled by its impolicy, and was pursued with eagerness, cruel and unrelenting. The manner in which parties are composed in the Eastern States, is perfectly well understood there, and no statesman, in any other part of the country, ought to be uninformed on the subject. The democrattick party in Massachusetts, followed a plan of proceedings so monstrous and unprincipled, that the publick were astonished at it, even in them; they attempted to perpetuate power in their own hands, by mutilating the political map of the state, and the new-fangled districts gave rise to the name of a monster, which will be long remembered; they sought with as much ignorance as profligacy, to command all the wealth of the state, by a scheme of refusing the renewal of the Bank charters just then expiring, while they proposed a bank of their own on a large scale, in which, for the first time, the condition of subscription was party conformity, and it was openly, unblushingly limited to the adherents of their own faction. To confirm *this* party, which possessed nothing but numbers, thousands of which would drop from its branches in the first frost of adversity—the administration directed all their efforts. The wealth, the talents, the services of the Federalists availed them nothing. The hour of national danger was selected for their final proscription. So far from being called, with a spirit of magnanimity, in the time of trial, to share in the councils of their country, in the welfare of which their stake was so immense; even the father, who had shed his blood to establish its independence, could not obtain a subaltern commission for his son to march to its defence.

Thus devoted to destruction, it is not surprising that the Federal party resorted to every expedient in their power, for self defence; we do not pretend to say, that all their steps were politick or justifiable; but some allowance must be made for the circumstances in which they were placed. In one of the grand districts of the United States, a majority in number, possessing a vast proportion of the property and talent existing in the community, saw themselves exposed without any defence, by the general government, to the incursions of the enemy; while all the measures, all the patronage, all the intrigues of the Administration, were directed to humble and crush them, to drive them from their influence in the State governments, and elevate in their

places, a minority, whose tried servility would leave them satisfied with the profits of office, without the slightest influence in the national councils. It is astonishing, that thus harassed within and without, not knowing which to dread the most, a foreign enemy or their own government, since both seemed bent on their destruction—is it astonishing, we ask, that they should have sometimes passed the ordinary bounds of opposition? What shall be said of an Administration, who could thus alienate a large portion of the community, whose monied wealth, condensed population, and active resources, were of so much importance; of an Administration, who, in rancorous pursuit of the paltry objects of party, were willing to place the very existence of the nation in jeopardy?

Thus doomed to struggle for the preservation of their essential rights and natural standing in their own states; they were still further discouraged at the universal mismanagement of a war, the great purpose of which, appeared to be their ruin. The finances approaching to the verge of bankruptcy, the frontiers abandoned to the ravages of the enemy, and the main efforts of the Administration directed to the useless conquest of Canada. Their resources diminishing, their institutions palsied, their population forced to emigrate, harassed by the enemy, and persecuted by their own government, their prospects for themselves personally, and for their country, were equally gloomy: and the only smile they could give, was one of bitter derision, at the ludicrous wailings of foreign vagrants, who hardly landed on their shores, were, for a daily stipend, deploring their degradation from the character of their ancestors, and their want of national feeling!

Without going into detail on this painful subject, let us turn to Lake Ontario, for one scene of mismanagement. By the plan of their campaign, it was necessary to obtain command on this lake; from gunboats, they proceeded to frigates, from frigates to ships of the line; a fleet was thus created, which was unserviceable so long as it remained inferior, and the moment it attained the superiority, was for ever after useless. To man and arm this fleet, the ships of the line in our seaports were dismantled, or to speak more correctly, left unfitted—Yet, if instead of equipping ships of the line on Lake Ontario, they had been launched in the seaports,* and in addition to those we already posses-

* Some idea of the relish for this service by those employed in it, may be formed from the following anecdotes:—An officer going down to one

sed there, sent on the ocean, where only we could seriously annoy the enemy, more would have been done for the conquest of Canada, in one year, than would have ever been effected in the course pursued. The American navy had fully shewn its character, and of what materials it was composed—they were more justly to be dreaded than the cumbrous fleets of France and Spain; one Spartan battalion was more dangerous than a Persian army—With five ships of the line and our few frigates, divided into two or three squadrons, we might have scoured every sea. The utmost alarm and distress would have pervaded the commercial interests of England—As it was, their numerous convoys were safe under the protection of single ships of the line: if our ships had been at sea, every convoy must have had its guards doubled, or been exposed to destruction: squadrons, also, must have been sent in pursuit of the hostile ships, and the British navy, large as it is, would not have sufficed for these purposes; they must either have left their commerce unprotected, or abandoned the blockade of our coasts. The consequences are obvious, in the one case some animation would have been given to our own commerce; in the other, the British merchants would have been thrown into consternation. The nation was able to bear the enormous burthens of taxation, while it procured them a monopoly of commerce; but if the insecurity of their commercial fleets had been added to these burthens, convulsions would have followed.

In the mean time the State of Massachusetts was denounced, for suffering the enemy to hold possession of Castine. This place is on a small peninsula, with high and commanding ground, at the mouth of the Penobscot. The British dug a canal across the neck, and thus converted it into an Island, the approach to which was completely enfiladed by ships of war on both sides, and heavy batteries opposed the assailants in front. It was provided with a

of the cities on the sea-coast, asked another if he had any commissions?—*only to send him a bottle of salt water.* A number of seamen, drafted from the lakes to serve on board the *Independence*, when they came along side of the ship, jumped over, half a dozen of them, and were swimming about. The officer in charge, with surprise, inquired what was the matter—*O sir, we don't mean to disgrace that ship, we are not fit to go on board of her, till we have washed off the d—d fresh water.*

sufficient garrison, who could always receive supplies by sea. The country adjoining was thinly peopled. If it had been attacked by as large an army, as that which assaulted the lines of New-Orleans, and the regular troops within had done their duty, as well as the militia in those lines did theirs, the result would probably have been the same; yet every artifice was made use of, to throw an odium on the government of Massachusetts for not retaking this position. The people who were loudest in their clamour, lived on the shores of a Bay in which there was an island, quite as easy of attack as this of Castine; where the enemy calmly formed a depot for plunder, for the training of runaway slaves, and for building boats for the future expedition to the Mississippi. They were in the heart of a numerous population, near the seat of Government—and quite as unmolested as the garrison of Guernsey.—Besides, the State of Massachusetts had expended 800,000 dollars in specie, for the defence of her territory, her citizens had volunteered to erect various fortifications with the greatest activity and cheerfulness; her capital was almost converted into a garrison town, and yet the expenses she incurred are still, by a despicable quibble, unliquidated; though Virginia, and other states in the same situation, have been reimbursed. Such is the protection, such the generosity and justice, which this proscribed state has received from the national government.

In thus recalling the blunders of our administration, it is some consolation, that the enemy, if possible, committed still greater. The ravages and buccaneering spirit with which they carried on the war in the Southern states, the plunder of Alexandria, the destruction of Washington, an act without a parallel in modern warfare; the letter of Admiral Cochrane, openly avowing the intention to ravage and destroy every spot that was defenceless and unprotected, were all acts which made them at once odious and despised. But their fatal error was in the continuance of the war. When they found themselves unexpectedly relieved from the long contest in Europe, and that the United States were the only enemy who remained, they should then have offered peace. This would have appeared the greatest magnanimity on their part, thus to wave the opportunity of overwhelming us; the capture of the frigates would have been forgotten, and we should have escaped from a luckless war, with all the disgrace of our first defeats by land, and in the

opinion of the world and perhaps our own, should have thought we owed our escape to the clemency of a generous and powerful foe. Fortunately, a spirit of revenge, and blind arrogance led them a different course. Chastisement was the most lenient threat uttered; conquest and destruction were contemplated. The "invincibles" from the Peninsula, all the disposable forces both sea and land, were directed to these devoted shores, which they were to overrun, and particular parts were to be retained as permanent acquisitions.* They came, and were covered with confusion and disgrace. Our navy maintained its reputation; our army acquired one. Wherever they appeared they were defeated, except in the instance, where they were opposed by the administration "in person." The gallant conflicts in Canada, the repulse at Baltimore, the overthrow on Lake Champlain, the retreat from Plattsburg, where an army of veteran troops retired before a handful of militia and regulars, the destructive defeat at New-Orleans, were the consequences of continuing the war. Every where the invader met defiance from the gallant spirit of our citizens; death, captivity or flight, were the only alternatives. Thus ended the scheme of vengeance, marked by some of the most memorable defeats recorded in history.

There is fortunately no evil, without something to alleviate its effects. Even war, one of the greatest of all the evils which afflict society, is not wholly without advantages. It is encouraging to reflect, that amid the disasters, the privations, the sufferings, the losses, and the burthens which were occasioned by this war, there were several important advantages resulting from it. It has increased our consideration in the world. The United States, with the exception of the hostilities with France, where the two parties could hardly come in contact, and some wars with the barbarians on the coast of Africa, and those on our frontier, which hardly excited the attention of Europe in the midst of the tremendous wars then raging, had not been tried in warfare, since the struggle by which they acquired independence. Their active and prosperous enterprise, had

* An eminent Map-seller in London, advised an American gentleman, not knowing him to be such, who applied to him for a map of the United States, to defer the purchase for a few weeks; that he was then keeping all his maps unfinished, as the boundaries would all be changed, and a considerable part of the Union incorporated with the British possessions!

drawn on them the attention of the world, and the belligerent nations encroached on their rights, till at last they thought they possessed none, or at least none, which they would defend. The love of peace was thought to be founded on incapacity for war. The exploits of our navy and army excited admiration. Their first effort, we may almost say, was not to contend with inferior combatants, but a contest with the victorious gladiator, who alone maintained possession of the arena. The short conflict attracted the attention of the world, and has given us character abroad "and character is power."

At home, the war has brought back the government to the sound principles of the Federal administration. It has secured the establishment of a navy for defence; it has shewn the necessity of preparation and the policy of providing arsenals and fortifications; it has withered the vile hypocrisy of economy, the vote-gaining, gun-boat, dry-dock economy; and has shewn, that true economy consists in a wise expenditure. It has taught us greater respect for ourselves. France and England, in disturbing Europe to its foundations, had drawn all the attention of the world toward them. We were deeply affected by our various sympathies towards these nations; and having been so long spectators, we hardly thought we could be actors on the same scene. The glare of their exploits was dazzling to our peaceful sight. For obvious, natural reasons, a good deal of this admiration was felt for the English. We met, and the consequence is, a juster appreciation of each other. Even the specimens of their officers whom we saw after the peace, had a useful effect, though sometimes an amusing one, in dispelling illusion. We wonder at them a little less, and they respect us a little more; peace is therefore much more likely to continue. No one can desire more ardently than ourselves, that it may never again be interrupted.

We have made some of the preceding remarks with reluctance, not wishing to touch on topics that awaken party excitement; but we could not refrain from a few allusions to the manner in which the Federalists have been treated, particularly in the Eastern States. As they possessed the control of the state governments in that section, they were assailed with every weapon of intrigue. The misrepresentations of their conduct have been so widely and industriously spread, that many honest men in other parts of the Union, have been offended

at it ; not considering that in the position in which they were placed, a tremendous responsibility devolved upon them ; they had not only to supply the deficiency of the National government, in providing for defence against a foreign foe, but to guard against the violations of the Constitution, by the encroachments of that administration. Their efforts to preserve the integrity of the State governments, to save the militia from conscription, to make a stand against the mismanagement of the finances, and prevent the whole country from being cursed with the evils of a depreciated currency, will be remembered, and when the passions of the day have subsided, be justly appreciated.

We come now to the work under consideration. The author was the principal engineer in that military division, and an eye witness of the most remarkable events that took place before New-Orleans. The work is divided into two parts, an historical memoir, containing 251 pages, and an appendix of 190 pages, comprising all the documents relating to the campaign. The atlas accompanying the work, has eight maps and plans, of all the military operations that took place in that quarter, at Fort Bowyer, and Fort St. Philip, as well as before New-Orleans. A portrait of General Jackson is given, which, it may be presumed, has the merit of resemblance, since it has no other, and is really too mean a specimen of art, to accompany a volume so respectable. In the preface, the author gives some short account of the political causes of the war ; these have been the subject of endless discussion, and we have no desire to advert to them, but if we had, his opinion, that the Embargo was a wise measure, and that its repeal was unfortunate, would be sufficient to make us relinquish it. Perhaps it may look like arrogance, but in this part of the country at least, opinion is decided with regard to that execrable system ; and an argument would no more be held with a person who should approve it, than with one who should deny a demonstration in geometry.

Major Latour commences, by some observations on the notoriety that was given early in the spring, by the British government, and their newspapers, openly talking of the intended expedition to Louisiana : and yet, "that as late as in the month of September, nothing had been done in the way of effectual preparations, to put that country in a state.

of defence." The operations in this quarter were commenced, by a small expedition, the naval part under the command of Captain Percy, and the troops under Colonel Nicholls. They landed and took forcible possession of Pensacola, and were aided by the Spaniards in all their proceedings; they collected all the Indians that would resort to their standard, and Colonel Nicholls began his career by a flaming proclamation, truly ludicrous. He then sent an officer to the piratical establishment at Barataria, to enlist the Chief, Lafitte, and his followers in their cause; the most liberal and tempting offers were made them. These people however, shewed that they were not destitute of all principle; they deceived the English by delay, conveyed intelligence of their designs to the Governour at New-Orleans, and offered their services to defend the country. Disappointed in securing their aid, the expedition proceeded to the attack of Fort Bowyer, on Mobile point, confident of success, having loudly boasted to the Spaniards that they would bring them the garrison as prisoners. This brave garrison, commanded by Major Lawrence, was only composed of 130 men, officers included. The force brought against it consisted of two sloops of war, and two brigs, and the number of men on board and on shore amounted to more than 1300. The result was a loss to the besiegers of more than 200 men; the Commodore's ship was so disabled that they set fire to her, and she blew up, and the remaining three vessels, shattered and filled with wounded men, returned to Pensacola. The enemy being thus sheltered in this place, where they were busily occupied in bringing over the Indians to join them, General Jackson formed an expedition of about 4000 men, regulars and militia, to go and dislodge them. He summoned the place, and was refused entrance by the Spanish Governour, and his flag of truce was fired upon; the British soldiers being in the forts where their flag had been hoisted, in conjunction with the Spanish, the day before the American forces appeared. Preparations were immediately made to carry the place; one battery was taken by storm, with slight loss on either side; the Governour then surrendered the place, the English having previously retired on board their ships. The forts below, which commanded the passage, were blown up, and this enabled the ships to put to sea. General Jackson then evacuated the Spanish territory, and marched his troops

back to Mobile and New-Orleans, which he reached himself on the second day of December. The author thus describes the state of things on his arrival.

“The situation of our country at that period, owing to the proximity of the enemy—the number of whose ships of war on our coast was daily increasing—was critical in the extreme: but the unbounded confidence which the nation in general had in the talents of general Jackson, made us all look up to that officer, as a commander destined to lead our troops to victory, and to save our country. It is hardly possible to form an idea of the change which his arrival produced on the minds of the people. Hitherto partial attempts had been made to adopt measures of defence; the legislature had appointed a joint committee of both houses, to concert with the Governor, Commodore Patterson, and the military commandant, such measures as they should deem most expedient; but nothing had been done. There was wanting that concentration of power, so necessary for the success of military operations. The citizens, having very little confidence in their civil or military authorities, for the defence of the country, were filled with distrust and gloomy apprehension. Miserable disputes on account of two different committees of defence; disputes, unfortunately countenanced by the presence and influence of several public officers, had driven the people to despondency; they complained, and not without cause, that the legislature wasted time, and consumed the money of the State, in idle discussions on empty formalities of election, while all their time, and all the wealth they squandered, might be profitably employed in the defence of the country. Credit was annihilated—already for several months had the banks suspended the payment of their notes; to supply the want of specie, one and three dollar notes had been issued, and dollars had been cut as a substitute for small change. On the banks refusing specie, the monied men had drawn in their funds, which they no longer lent out, without an usurious interest of three or four per cent. per month. Every one was distressed; confidence had ceased; and with it, almost every species of business.

“Our situation seemed desperate. In case of an attack, we could hope to be saved only by a miracle, or by the wisdom and genius of a commander-in-chief. Accordingly, on

his arrival, he was immediately invested with the confidence of the publick, and all hope centered in him. We shall, hereafter, see how amply he merited the confidence which he inspired."

General Jackson reviewed a corps of volunteers the day of his arrival, and immediately proceeded to visit the next day, every post in the neighbourhood, to give orders for adding fortifications, and establishing defensive works and out-posts in every spot where the enemy might be expected; as there was the greatest uncertainty where the landing would be made. Commodore Patterson, commanding the naval force on the station, had received notice, by an anonymous letter from Pensacola, of the arrival of the enemy's fleet on the coast. The author has here occasion to remark, on the gross neglect which had been shewn towards the defence of Louisiana, though he is willing to absolve the Administration from all blame. We were equally neglected in this quarter, but are less disposed to acquit those who had the management of publick affairs, and who were exhausting all their resources in a senseless attack upon Canada, and building ships of the line on Lake Ontario. Had there been twenty-five or thirty gun-boats for the defence of Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain, it is probable that they would have been sufficient, by assuming a station in the narrow passes, to have defeated all attempts at invasion through those Lakes, in which case the enemy must have gone to Florida, and then would never have reached New-Orleans. But in the only district where they could be of real and effective service, there were only five of these disastrous favourites to be found. These were indeed made the most of, and the gallant contest they maintained, is almost a solitary item to be placed to the credit of the gun-boat system, which had well nigh destroyed our navy, after costing the nation several millions of dollars! The command of these gun-boats was entrusted to Lieutenant Thomas Ap Catesby Jones, who was directed to watch the movements of the enemy, and if they advanced in superiour force, to make good his retreat through Lake Borgne, which lake, it must be understood, is a bay of the sea, to the pass of the Rigolets, which communicates between this lake or bay and Lake Pontchartrain. In pursuance of this duty, he sailed to Dauphine Island, and as he discovered the fleet advancing, endeavoured to gain the Rigolets; having been from

the 9th of December to the 13th, on this service, reconnoitring : they on the 13th, were obliged to anchor by Malheureux Island, near the bottom of Lake Borgne, the wind having died away, and the current being strong against them. The water was so shallow that the boats were several inches in the mud, which prevented their making any change of position. In this situation they were attacked on the 14th by forty barges and launches, containing 1200 men—one of the launches had a long brass 12 pounder, the other a long nine—each of the barges a carronade from nine to twenty-four calibre. Our force mounted 25 guns, and contained 182 men. It is needless to say, that after a gallant conflict, the whole were taken by this vast disparity of force, after having six men killed, and thirty-five wounded ; among whom were almost all the officers. The loss of the enemy was estimated at upwards of three hundred, with a large proportion of officers, and the commander, Captain Lockyer, received three severe wounds ; the official report to Admiral Cochrane, states the loss in killed and wounded, at 94 : the truth may, perhaps, be half way between the two accounts. That the official reports are not to be confided in exactly, may be gathered from the following fact among others. There was a sloop rigged boat accompanying the gunboats, which had been constructed originally for a gig, and brought to Lake Borgne on a wagon. Captain Lockyer, in his report, thus narrates her capture : “ Observing also, as we approached the flotilla, an armed sloop endeavouring to join them, Captain Roberts, who volunteered to take her with part of his division, succeeded in cutting her off and capturing her, without much opposition.” On this Major Latour had made the following note : “ This ‘ armed sloop,’ which required a division of barges to capture her, mounted one four pounder, and carried eight men.” In making the return of the vessels captured, she is put down “ armed sloop, one long six pounder, two twelve pound carronades, with a complement of 20 men.”

The loss of the gun-boats, after a contest which added to the reputation of our navy, left no means of watching the movements of the enemy, or ascertaining where the landing would be made. Orders were given for increased vigilance at every post ; the people of colour were formed into a battalion ; the offer of the Baratarians to volunteer, on condition of a pardon for previous offences, if they conducted

themselves with bravery and fidelity, was accepted. General Jackson, after applying to the Legislature to suspend the act of *habeas corpus*, and finding they were consuming these extreme moments in discussing and committing, "proclaimed martial law, and from that moment his means became more commensurate with the weight of responsibility he had to sustain." The situation of New-Orleans at this period, the 19th of December, is thus described by Major Latour.

"All classes of society were now animated with the most ardent zeal. The young, the old, women, children, all breathed defiance to the enemy, firmly resolved to oppose to the utmost the threatened invasion. General Jackson had electrified all hearts; all were sensible of the approaching danger; but they waited its presence undismayed. They knew that, in a few days, they must come to action with the enemy; yet, calm and unalarmed, they pursued their usual occupations, interrupted only when they tranquilly left their homes to perform military duty at the posts assigned them. It was known that the enemy was on our coast, within a few hours sail of the city, with a presumed force of between nine and ten thousand men; whilst all the forces we had yet to oppose him amounted to no more than one thousand regulars, and from four to five thousand militia.

"These circumstances were publickly known, nor could any one disguise to himself, or to others, the dangers with which we were threatened. Yet, such was the universal confidence, inspired by the activity and decision of the commander-in-chief, added to the detestation in which the enemy was held, and the desire to punish his audacity, should he presume to land, that not a single warehouse or shop was shut, nor were any goods or valuable effects removed from the city. At that period, New-Orleans presented a very affecting picture to the eyes of the patriot, and to all those whose bosoms glow with the feelings of national honour, which raise the mind far above the vulgar apprehension of personal danger. The citizens were preparing for battle as cheerfully as if it had been a party of pleasure, each in his vernacular tongue singing songs of victory. The streets resounded with *Yankee Doodle*, the *Marseilles Hymn*, the *Chant du Depart*, and other martial airs, while those who had been long unaccustomed to military duty, were furbishing their arms and accoutrements. Beauty applauded

valour, and promised with her smiles to reward the toils of the brave. Though inhabiting an open town, not above ten leagues from the enemy, and never till now exposed to war's alarms, the fair sex of New-Orleans were animated with the ardour of their defenders, and with cheerful serenity at the sound of the drum, presented themselves at the windows and balconies, to applaud the troops going through their evolutions, and to encourage their husbands, sons, fathers, and brothers, to protect them from the insults of our ferocious enemies, and prevent a repetition of the horrors of Hampton.

"The several corps of militia were constantly exercising from morning till evening, and at all hours was heard the sound of drums, and of military bands of musick. New-Orleans wore the appearance of a camp; and the greatest cheerfulness and concord prevailed amongst all ranks and conditions of people. All countenances expressed a wish to come to an engagement with the enemy, and announced a foretaste of victory."

At the mouth of Bayou Bienvenu, emptying into Lake Borgne, there was a small village of fishermen, principally Spaniards and Portuguese, who all went over to the enemy, served them as pilots, and rendered them important aid in this way. The description which the author gives of the place of landing, and the nature of the country, contains so much interesting information, independently of its connexion with military operations, that we shall extract it to give the reader an idea of the singular formation of the country.

"The bayou Bienvenu, is unfortunately become so remarkable from the British forces having penetrated through it, into Louisiana, that it deserves a particular description.

"This bayou, formerly called the river St. Francis, under which designation it is laid down in some old maps, is the creek through which run all the waters of a large basin, of a triangular form, about eighty square miles in surface, bounded on the south by the Mississippi, on the west by New-Orleans, by bayou Sauvage or Chef-Menteur on the northwest, and on the east by Lake Borgne, into which it empties. It receives the waters of several other bayous, formed by those of the surrounding cypress swamps and prairies, and of innumerable little streams from the low grounds along the river. It commences

behind the suburb Marigny, at New-Orleans, divides the triangle nearly into two equal parts from the summit to the lake which forms its basis, and runs in a south-easterly direction. It is navigable for vessels of one hundred tons, as far as the forks of the canal of Piernas' plantation, twelve miles from its mouth. Its breadth is from one hundred and ten to one hundred and fifty yards, and it has six feet water on the bar, at common tides, and nine feet at spring tides. Within the bar, there is for a considerable extent, sufficient water for vessels of from two to three hundred tons. Its principal branch is that which is called bayou Mazant, which runs towards the south-west, and receives the waters of the canals of the plantations of Villeré, Lacoste, and Laronde, on which the enemy established his principal encampment. It was at the forks of the canal Villière and bayou Mazant that the British ascended in their pinnaces, and effected a landing.

“Of the other branches of the bayou Bienvenu, we shall take no particular notice; that called bayou Mazant being the only one connected with the British military movements.

“The level of the great basin, or the bank of the principal bayou, is usually twelve feet below the level of the banks of the Mississippi. The slope is usually one half of that height, or six feet, for the descent of the lands under culture, of from about one half to two-thirds of a mile in depth from the river, and the remaining six feet is the slope of cypress swamps and prairies, which are usually three or four times the depth, or extent of the high-lands susceptible of cultivation; so that one thousand yards, the usual depth of the lands under culture, have a slope of six feet, which gives less than 0,005 of a foot to each yard, whilst the prairies and cypress swamps together, commonly six thousand yards in depth, have but 0,001 of a foot to the yard in slope. The overflowing of the waters of all those bayous and canals, occasioned by the tide of the sea, or by the winds raising the waters in the lake, forms on all their banks deposits of slime, which are continually raising them above the rest of the soil, so that the interval between two bayous is, of course, below the level of their banks, and the soil is generally covered with water and mud, aquatick plants, or large reeds, growing there in abundance to the height of from six to eight feet: it sometimes happens that the rains, or the filtrated waters, collected in these intervals or basins, not finding any issue to flow

off, form what are called *trembling prairies*, which are at all seasons impassable for men and domestick animals.

“ In times of great draught, and in low tides, the ordinary prairies are passible, and some of them are frequented by the cattle of the neighbouring plantations, which prefer the grass they find there to that which grows on the banks of the river, on account of the saline particles deposited among the former, by the waters of the lakes overflowing into the bayous. Such is nearly the structure of those basins or prairies, which are very extensive in Louisiana, and what we have observed of those which are immediately connected with our subject, is applicable, more or less, to all the others in the country. From the high-lands of the Floridas, where the first hills begin, all the rest, as far as the sea, is alluvion land, gained from the water by the deposits from streams, particularly the Mississippi. This space is crossed in different directions by strips of high-land, between which there is invariably a river or bayou, more or less subject to periodical swells or tides; the surface of these waters is usually but little below the soil contiguous to their banks, and always higher than that, which is at a certain distance. In a word, the land in Lower Louisiana slopes in the inverse direction of the soil of other countries, being most elevated on the sides of the rivers, and sinking as it recedes from them. The Mississippi swells annually and periodically at New-Orleans fourteen or fifteen feet, and is then from three to four feet above the level of its banks. To contain its waters within its bed, dikes or ramparts, called in Louisiana *levées*, have been raised on its banks, from the high-lands towards its mouth, a little above the level of the highest swells; without which precaution the lands would be entirely overflowed from four to five months in the year. When, from accident, or negligence in keeping up these dikes, the river breaks through them, the rupture, called in this country a *crevasse*, occasions an extensive inundation, which lays the adjacent cypress swamps under ten, and the prairies under twelve feet water. Such accidents, unfortunately too common, usually destroy at once the crops of ten, and sometimes of twenty plantations. It is hoped that the frequent recurrence of the evil, owing to a defective system of police for the *levées*, will determine the legislature to take effectual

measures to prevent such disasters, by ceasing to confide to the respective landholders a care so important to the whole country as that of the leveés, and imposing a tax on the lands where they run, for the purpose of keeping them always in repair."

The first disembarkation was composed of the light brigade, amounting to about 2000 men, under the command of Colonel Thornton; it reached the Mississippi about ten o'clock on the morning of the 23d, and were first discovered by a reconnoitring party, of whom the author was one, about 11 o'clock, and information was immediately sent to the commander-in-chief. General Jackson, at half past one, received the intelligence, and with the utmost promptitude, resolved on meeting them and making an immediate attack. Orders were despatched to Generals Coffee and Carroll, who were encamped four miles above the city, to march down. Several volunteer companies of New-Orleans were ordered down, and all these troops set out with the utmost enthusiasm and alacrity. The schooner Carolina was moored in the stream opposite the British camp; they looked at this vessel without suspecting her to be armed. It was near dark before the troops could reach the plantation, where the British were encamped. The fire commenced from the schooner, which took them by surprise, they received it ten minutes before attempting any return, and lost near a hundred men killed and wounded. After a vain attempt with muskets, rockets, &c. to drive the schooner away, they were obliged to evacuate their camp. The engagement with the troops now began, and lasted through the whole evening; the second division of the English army came up in the course of it. Many proofs of skill and bravery were shewn in the course of this night action; a volunteer company of riflemen, commanded by Captain Beale, had penetrated into the heart of the camp without a bayonet; they made many prisoners; but by mistaking a corps of the enemy, about 150, of the 85th regiment, for their own troops, they lost some prisoners in turn. Of the manner in which they fought, an idea may be gathered from General Keane's report, who says, that the 85th "found itself surrounded by a superior number of the enemy:" this volunteer company contained 62 men. "A more extraordinary conflict," the same report says, "has perhaps never occurred; absolutely hand

to hand, officers and men." The enemy, who had advanced to meet our troops at half past nine, fell back to their camp, and the darkness of the night prevented General Jackson from following up the advantage he had gained. The English official report acknowledges a loss of three hundred and five, killed, wounded, and prisoners; our loss under the same heads was two hundred and thirteen. Among the officers killed, who was greatly regretted by the army, was Colonel Lauderdale, of General Coffee's brigade. The forces engaged amounted on our side, to less than two thousand effective men, they were composed of every description, principally volunteers and militia, very few of whom had ever seen an engagement; this body of men attacked veteran troops, flushed with the confidence of previous victories, and a belief in their own invincibility. The force of the enemy consisted of 2080 men of the light brigade, and the 2d division, which came up in the early part of the action, amounted to 2900 more. The author estimates their whole force in the combat at 4500 men. He attributes, and we think justly, great importance to this first engagement; that it checked the confidence of the enemy, and made them hesitate at advancing till their whole force was brought up. Had they pushed on immediately, their chance of reaching the city would have been much greater; the reinforcements had not arrived; the city was uncovered; all our forces at that time did not exceed five thousand men, mostly militia, who could not be expected to meet regular troops with the bayonet, a weapon with which most of them indeed were without. In the morning, the combatants were found drawn up about three hundred yards from each other. At eight o'clock, the British troops broke up and returned to their encampment. General Jackson had, at 4 o'clock in the morning, ordered the operations to be commenced for fortifying the canal of Rodriguez; and it was in attempting to storm these lines on the 8th of January, that they received their memorable and destructive defeat.

On the 28th, the enemy moved forward, and with such superiority of force, that our troops were obliged to fall back within the lines, which had been commenced on the Rodriguez canal. The Louisiana sloop of war anchored abreast of these lines every day, and ascended the river in the night; her fire, which swept the ground in front, was a severe annoyance. From this period till the final attack, the

time was employed on our side by finishing the lines of defence, one extremity of which rested on the Mississippi, the other on an impassable swamp, and were about a mile in length. There were eight batteries established, mounting in all twelve guns of different calibre, and one howitzer. The enemy were occupied in bringing up their troops and artillery, and establishing batteries. After these were completed, they kept up a heavy fire, and on different occasions, threw an immense quantity of Congreve rockets, at the same time displaying their columns, and making demonstrations of an assault, if the fire of the artillery and the rockets should produce an effect upon our troops. The writer thus speaks of this weapon on the 28th of December. "During the whole day, the enemy incessantly threw Congreve rockets, which wounded some of our men. By one of these, Major Carmich, of the marines, had his horse killed, and was wounded in the hand. The British had great expectation, from the effect of this weapon, against an enemy who had never seen it before. They hoped that its very noise would strike terror into us; but we soon grew accustomed to it, and thought it little formidable; for in the whole course of the campaign, the rockets only wounded ten men, and blew up two caissons. That weapon must doubtless be effectual to throw amongst squadrons of cavalry to frighten horses, or to set fire to houses; but from the impossibility of directing it with any certainty, it will ever be a very precarious weapon to use against troops drawn up in line of battle, or behind ramparts."

On the 7th of January, from the movements observed in the British camp, a speedy attack was anticipated. This was made early on the 8th, and perhaps a greater disparity of loss never occurred; that of the enemy in killed, wounded, and prisoners, is fairly estimated at 3000 men; the killed and wounded on our side at thirteen. The enemy was more successful on the right bank, where the fortified lines were in a very incomplete state. The troops, consisting principally of Kentucky militia, broke and fled in confusion. It may be observed, in excuse for them, that their position was a bad one, drawn up on the edge of a ditch, without other defence, their right was turned, their number did not exceed five hundred, not more than half of these were armed, that they had been near twenty-four hours without food, and had marched, pre-

vious to the action, five miles, a part of the distance knee deep in mud. Under these circumstances, their rout, even though it was a disorderly flight, cannot be considered extraordinary. Had the enemy crossed over a large division of their army to the right bank, they would in all probability, have reached the bank opposite New-Orleans, and the fate of the campaign might have been different. If a contrary course was taken by the opinion of Admiral Cochrane, as the author says, it has been suggested was the case; and he added this calamity to the disgrace he had already entailed upon his country, by his mode of carrying on the war in the Chesapeake and the Southern States, we should think a suitable reward might occasion his government some difficulty. The troops from the right bank were recrossed during the truce, which was asked for by General Lambert, for the purpose of burying the dead. This most desirable event was, perhaps, owing in part, to the tone assumed by General Jackson, in making the condition, that the suspension of arms should not extend to the right bank, and that no reinforcements should be sent over from either side.

“A little before daybreak, our out-post came in without noise, having perceived the enemy moving forward in great force.

“At last the dawn of day discovered to us the enemy occupying two-thirds of the space between the wood and the Mississippi. Immediately a Congreve rocket went off from the skirt of the wood, in the direction of the river. This was the signal for the attack. At the same instant, the twelve-pounder of battery No. 6, whose gunners had perceived the enemy's movement, discharged a shot. On this all his troops gave three cheers, formed in close column of about sixty men in front, in very good order, and advanced nearly in the direction of battery No. 7, the men shouldering their muskets, and all carrying fascines, and some with ladders. A cloud of rockets preceded them, and continued to fall in showers during the whole attack. Batteries Nos. 6, 7, and 8, now opened an incessant fire on the column, which continued to advance in pretty good order, until, in a few minutes, the musketry of the troops of Tennessee and Kentucky, joining their fire with that of the artillery, began to make an impression on it, which soon threw it into confusion. It was at that moment, that was heard that constant

rolling fire, whose tremendous noise resembled rattling peals of thunder. For some time the British officers succeeded in animating the courage of their troops, and making them advance, obliqueing to the left, to avoid the fire of battery No. 7, from which every discharge opened the column, and mowed down whole files, which were almost instantaneously replaced by new troops coming up close after the first: but these also shared the same fate, until at last, after twenty-five minutes continual firing, through which a few platoons advanced to the edge of the ditch, the column entirely broke, and part of the troops dispersed, and ran to take shelter among the bushes on the right. The rest retired to the ditch where they had been when first perceived, four hundred yards from our lines.

“There the officers with some difficulty rallied their troops, and again drew them up for a second attack, the soldiers having laid down their knapsacks at the edge of the ditch, that they might be less incumbered.

“And now, for the second time, the column, recruited with the troops that formed the rear, advanced. Again it was received with the same rolling fire of musketry and artillery, till, having advanced without much order very near our lines, it at last broke again, and retired in the utmost confusion. In vain did the officers now endeavour, as before, to revive the courage of their men; to no purpose did they strike them with the flat of their swords, to force them to advance: they were insensible of every thing but danger, and saw nothing but death which had struck so many of their comrades.

“The attack on our lines had hardly begun, when the British commander-in-chief, the honorable Sir Edward Packenham, fell a victim to his own intrepidity, while endeavouring to animate his troops with ardour for the assault. Soon after his fall, two other generals, Keane and Gibbs, were carried off the field of battle, dangerously wounded. A great number of officers of rank had fallen: the ground over which the column had marched, was strewed with the dead and the wounded. Such slaughter on their side, with no loss on ours, spread consternation through their ranks, as they were now convinced of the impossibility of carrying our lines, and saw that even to advance was certain death. In a word, notwithstanding the repeated efforts of some officers to make the troops form a third time, they would not

advance, and all that could be obtained from them, was to draw them up in the ditch, where they passed the rest of the day.

“Some of the enemy’s troops had advanced into the wood towards the extremity of our line, to make a false attack, or to ascertain whether a real one were practicable. These the troops under General Coffee no sooner perceived, than they opened on them a brisk fire with their rifles, which quickly made them retire. The greater part of those who, on the column’s being repulsed, had taken shelter in the thickets, only escaped our batteries to be killed by our musketry. During the whole hour that the attack lasted, our fire did not slacken for a single moment; and it seemed as though the artillery and musketry vied with each other in vivacity.

“When the column first advanced to the attack, the troops partly moved forward along the skirt of the wood, which in that part forms a curve, and were by that means covered, till they came within two hundred yards of our lines. After the attack on our left had commenced, the enemy made a column advance on the right by the road, and between the river and the levée. This column precipitately pushing forward, drove in our out-posts, following them so closely that it came up to the unfinished redoubt, before we could fire on it more than two discharges of our cannon. A part of the column leaped into the ditch, and got into the redoubt through the embrasures, and over the parapet, overpowering with their numbers the few men they found there: others advancing along the brink of the river, killed the soldiers of the 7th, who bravely defended their post at the point of the bayonet, against a number much superiour, and continually increasing.

“To get into the redoubt was not a very arduous achievement: the difficulty was to maintain possession of it, and clear the breastwork of the intrenchment in the rear of the redoubt, which still remained to be attacked. Already several British officers, though wounded, were bravely advancing to encourage their men by their example.

“Colonel Reneè, followed by two other officers of high rank, had begun to mount the breastwork, when the gallant volunteer riflemen under Captain Beale, who defended the head of the line, made them all find their graves, in that redoubt which they had mastered with so much gallantry,

Meanwhile, Captain Humphreys' battery No. 1, Lieutenant Norris's No. 2, and the 7th regiment, which was the only one within musket-shot, kept up a tremendous fire on that column, which, like that on the left, was obliged to fall back in disorder, leaving the road, the levée, and the brink of the river, strewn with its dead and wounded.

"The enemy had opened the fire of the battery which he erected on the road on the 28th of December, as also of that erected on the 1st of January, behind the demolished buildings of Chalmette's plantation. The fire was at first very brisk, and principally directed against Macarty's house, in hopes that the General and his staff might still be there; but to the enemy's disappointment, the General and all the officers had repaired to their posts on the lines, long before daybreak. The only mischief done by that prodigious expense of balls and shells, was that Major Chotard, assistant Adjutant-General, received a contusion in his shoulder, and four or five pillars of the house were knocked down. Our batteries, Nos. 2, 3, and 4, principally directed their fire against those of the enemy, and dismounted several of the guns erected near Chalmette's buildings. Battery No. 1, after having poured a shower of grape-shot on the enemy's troops as they retreated, turned its fire against his battery which was opposite to it, and in less than two hours, forced the men to evacuate it. The marine battery on the right bank also fired on the enemy's column, as it advanced along the brink of the river, until the troops which landed on the right bank, pushed forward, and obliged the seamen who served it, to attend to their own defence.

"By half after eight in the morning, the fire of the musketry had ceased. The whole plain on the left, as also the side of the river, from the road to the edge of the water, was covered with the British soldiers who had fallen. About four hundred wounded prisoners were taken, and at least double that number of wounded men escaped into the British camp; and, what might perhaps appear incredible, were there not many thousand ready to attest the fact, is, that a space of ground, extending from the ditch of our lines to that on which the enemy drew up his troops, two hundred and fifty yards in length, by about two hundred in breadth, was literally covered with men, either dead or severely wounded. About forty men were killed in the ditch, up to which they had advanced, and about

the same number were there made prisoners. The artillery of our lines kept up a fire against the enemy's batteries and troops until two o'clock in the afternoon. By the disposition of his troops, the enemy appeared to apprehend lest we should make a sortie, and attack him in his camp. The soldiers were drawn up in the ditches, in several parallel lines, and all those who had been slightly wounded, as soon as their wounds were dressed, were sent to join their corps, to make their number of effective men appear the greater, and show a firm countenance. The enemy's loss on the left bank, in the affair of the 8th of January, was immense, considering the short duration of the contest, the ground, and the respective number of the contending forces. According to the most probable accounts, it cannot have amounted to less than three thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. The number of officers who fell that day is a much greater loss in proportion, owing to the necessity they were under of exposing themselves in the brunt of the battle, to encourage the men, and lead them on to the desperate assault. Our loss was comparatively inconsiderable, amounting to no more than thirteen in killed and wounded, on the left bank of the Mississippi.

"I deem it my indispensable duty to do justice to the intrepid bravery displayed in that attack by the British troops, especially by the officers. If any thing was wanting towards the attack's being conducted with judgment (speaking in a general and military point of view) it was, in my opinion, that they did not in the onset sacrifice the regularity of their movements to promptitude and celerity. The column marched on with the ordinary step, animating their courage with huzzas, instead of pushing on with fixed bayonets, *au pas de charge*. But it is well known that agility is not the distinctive quality of British troops. Their movement is in general sluggish and difficult, steady, but too precise, or at least more suitable for a pitched battle, or behind entrenchments, than for an assault. The British soldiers showed, on this occasion, that it is not without reason they are said to be deficient in agility. The enormous load they had to carry contributed indeed not a little to the difficulty of their movement. Besides their knapsacks usually weighing nearly thirty pounds, and their musket, too heavy by at least one third, almost all of them had to carry a fascine from nine to ten inches in diameter, and four feet

long, made of sugar-canes perfectly ripe, and consequently very heavy, or a ladder from ten to twelve feet long.

“The duty of impartiality, incumbent on him who relates military events, obliges me to observe that the attack made on Jackson’s lines, by the British, on the 8th of January, must have been determined on by their Generals, without any consideration of the ground, the weather, or the difficulties to be surmounted, before they could storm lines, defended by militia indeed, but by militia whose valour they had already witnessed, with soldiers bending under the weight of their load, when a man, unincumbered and unopposed, would that day have found it difficult to mount our breastwork at leisure and with circumspection, so extremely slippery was the soil. Yet those officers had time and abundant opportunity, to observe the ground on which the troops were to act. Since their arrival on the banks of the Mississippi, they had sufficiently seen the effects of rainy weather, to form a just idea of the difficulty their troops must have experienced, in climbing up our intrenchments, even had the column been suffered to advance, without opposition, as far as the ditch. But they were blinded by their pride. The vain presumption of their superiority, and their belief that the raw militia of Kentucky and Tennessee, who now for the first time had issued from their fields, could not stand before the very sight of so numerous a body of regular troops advancing to attack them, made them disregard the admonition of sober reason. Had they at all calculated on the possibility of resistance, they would have adopted a different plan of attack, which, however, I am far from thinking would have been ultimately successful.

“It has been repeated, that division prevailed in a council of war, and that Admiral Cochrane, combating the opinion of General Packenham, who, with more judgment, was for making the main attack on the right bank, boasted that he would undertake to storm our lines with two thousand sailors, armed only with swords and pistols. I know not how far this report may deserve credit, but if the British commander-in-chief was so unmindful of what he owed his country, who had committed to his prudence the lives and honour of several thousands of her soldiers, as to yield to the ill-judged and rash advice of the Admiral, his memory will be loaded with the heavy charge of having sacrificed reason in a moment of irritation,

though he atoned with his life for having acted contrary to his own judgment."

The author goes on to state an act of humanity in our men, who went out of the lines to bring in the wounded ; and that they were fired upon by the enemy while thus employed, and this when their object must have been perfectly clear ; he acquits General Lambert and the superiour officers of sanctioning this act, but blames those who were in immediate command. This "atrocitv," it may be hoped, for the honour of human nature, was in some way owing to mistake.

While the main scene of operations was near New-Orleans, an attempt was made on Fort St. Philip, situated about forty miles from the mouth of the river, the garrison of which consisted of 366 men. Two bomb vessels, a sloop of war, a gun-brig, and schooner made the attack—the bombardment continued from the 9th to the 18th, in the course of which they threw more than a thousand shells and carcasses, expending upwards of seventy tons of shells, twenty thousand pounds of powder, besides small shells, and round and grape shot from their boats ; the result was the killing two, and wounding seven men, when the expedition was withdrawn by the Admiral. All the buildings of the fort were almost in ruins, and the ground for half a mile round, was literally ploughed up in every direction.

The British forces evacuated their camp on the 19th, but General Jackson was unable to cause them much annoyance in their retreat, being destitute of boats. General Lambert left 80 wounded, among them three officers, whom he could not remove, and recommended them to the humanity of General Jackson, who, in a personal visit, assured them they should receive every succour and alleviation in his power. The English army proceeded to their old station, previous to their final departure from the coast. They laid siege to fort Bowyer, commanded by Colonel Lawrence, with a small garrison, who successfully resisted a previous attack, as before related. The British forces which could now be brought against him amounted to 8000 men, and as many of them were occupied in the siege as could be employed advantageously ; when the approaches had advanced within thirty yards of the works, he accepted conditions of surrender ; wisely avoiding a wanton waste of life, since resistance to such an overwhelming force,

in fortifications which were in a bad state, would have been inexcusable rashness.

Thus terminated an expedition, undertaken with the most extensive preparations, the most ample means, and a veteran army of chosen troops. The confidence of success was so strong, not only in the forces engaged in it, but in the Ministers who sanctioned it, that its object was openly spoken of; its *restoration* mentioned by the English negotiators at Ghent, as one of the consequences of the peace they had signed; the possibility of failure never occurred. The disappointment, particularly among those who were to share the plunder, may be imagined; in the whole history of expeditions, few can be found that experienced greater disasters. *We* have derived immense advantages from it, not only in reputation to the brave population who so ably defended themselves, but in shewing the weak points, and those which an enemy would select for their operations. Such is the nature of the country, the ground which will admit of the passage of an army is so narrowed by swamps, that the different passes to the city may be all rendered secure, and a certain number of gun-boats and block-ships may be so stationed, as to command the river and the lakes. If, therefore, the government does its duty, that district is safe against any future attempt at invasion.

On the 21st, the militia and volunteers left the lines and returned to New-Orleans. General Jackson had previously requested the Bishop to sing a *Te Deum*. This ceremony took place on the 23d. The address of the Bishop, and the answer of the General, are models of sentiment and elegance. The fete prepared, was contrived with simplicity and taste; and the day must have passed off with the most noble, joyous, and heart-felt emotions. The following description will give an idea of it.

“The 23d of January having been appointed as a day of Thanksgiving, for the interposition of Providence, on which *Te Deum* was to be sung, every preparation was made to render the festival worthy the occasion. A temporary triumphal arch was erected in the middle of the grand square, opposite the principal entrance of the cathedral. The different uniform companies of Plauché’s battalion lined both sides of the way, from the entrance of the square towards the river, to the church. The balconies and windows of

the city hall, the parsonage house, and all the adjacent buildings, were filled with spectators. The whole square, and the streets leading to it, were thronged with people. The triumphal arch was supported by six columns, amongst those on the right was a young lady representing Justice, and on the left another representing Liberty. Under the arch were two young children, each on a pedestal, holding a crown of laurel. From the arch, in the middle of the square to the church, at proper intervals, were ranged young ladies representing the different states and territories composing the American union, all dressed in white, covered with transparent veils, and wearing a silver star on their foreheads. Each of these young ladies held in her right hand a flag, inscribed with the name of the state she represented, and in her left a basket trimmed with blue ribbands, and full of flowers. Behind each was a shield suspended on a lance stuck in the ground, inscribed with the name of a state or territory. The intervals had been so calculated, that the shields, linked together with verdant festoons, occupied the distance from the triumphal arch to the church.

“General Jackson, accompanied by the officers of his staff, arrived at the entrance of the square, where he was requested to proceed to the church by the walk prepared for him. As he passed under the arch, he received the crowns of laurel from the two children, and was congratulated in an address spoken by Miss Kerr, who represented the state of Louisiana. The General then proceeded to the church, amidst the salutations of the young ladies representing the different states, who strewed his passage with flowers. At the entrance of the church he was received by the abbé Dubourg, who addressed him in a speech suitable to the occasion, and conducted him to a seat prepared for him near the altar. *Te Deum* was chaunted with impressive solemnity, and soon after a guard of honour attended the General to his quarters, and in the evening the town with its suburbs, was splendidly illuminated.

“Thus, in the space of a little less than one month, was terminated a campaign, ever memorable in the annals of America. On the 23d of December the enemy succeeded so far as to take a position on the Mississippi, and on the 19th of January he had already disappeared, leaving behind him the dead bodies of some thousands of private soldiers, and of many officers of distinction, and carrying with him

the shame of having miscarried in an undertaking so easy to accomplish, as he at first believed ; but, as he was taught by thirty day's experience, really too arduous to be attempted with any prospect of success.

“The British troops found that, notwithstanding the appalling renown which they thought had preceded their expedition to Louisiana, and the striking effect they expected would be produced by the very title of *heroes of Wellington*. which several regiments had vauntingly assumed, they could make no impression, even with a great superiority of numbers, on undisciplined militia, not one-fourth of whom had ever before seen a camp, or had any idea of the art of war. The whole success, indeed, of this boasted expedition, was the occupation of a tongue of land, beyond which the British army never durst advance, and which it left drenched with its bravest blood.”

Every step of this short campaign, discovers the superiour talents of General Jackson. The preservation of New-Orleans from the horrors that would have followed its capture, the saving to the country of merchandize, estimated at ten millions in value, which would have been plundered ; and more than all, the glorious reputation that was acquired by the citizens who defended it, may be all ascribed to his energy and skill. It would be difficult to find a situation more hopeless, and where an ordinary mind would have given way more readily without resistance, and, perhaps, have escaped without censure. Almost without troops, arms, or ammunition, without fortifications, with a mixt population, composed of all nations and colours ; thwarted by the State government, and apparently abandoned by that of the nation ; menaced with an overwhelming force of troops, flushed with victory, eager for conquest, and filled with confidence, it required a powerful mind not to be discouraged by this combination of circumstances. There were excellent materials to work with, as the events shewed, yet it required great energy and skill to use them, so as to inspire confidence and enthusiasm. This was done by this able General, in an eminent degree ; and to this may be attributed the defeat of the enemy, and the safety of Louisiana. Among the most brilliant events which have occurred in the wars of the last twenty years, there are very few which can vie in importance with the service that was rendered by this comman-

der, to the United States. He received the thanks of many different states in the union, and of Congress, and some more substantial, though not adequate rewards.

This brings us to remark on a measure of great wisdom and energy, and involving a responsibility, magnanimously assumed by General Jackson ; which furnished a mean, and indeed ludicrous instance, of a very narrow party spirit. The State of Louisiana passed votes of thanks, to several of the different officers concerned in the defence, and omitted General Jackson ! The reason for this omission was, that while they were wrangling and delaying to suspend the *habeas corpus* in a moment of the most imperious necessity ; the General, to save the country, proclaimed martial law. The cases are indeed few which can justify this measure ; but if ever one existed where every motive of expediency and duty urged it, this was one. Consider the situation of New-Orleans, the nature of the population, the secret correspondence which the enemy might so easily, and which it is impossible to suppose him so negligent as not to have possessed ; the plausible shapes, even, that treachery or cowardice might have taken, and then say that this measure was not one of urgent necessity. No citizen of a free country, can be so ignorant of the importance of the *habeas corpus* right, which is the foundation of all liberty, as not to regard it with the highest reverence. No enlightened politician can fail to appreciate the services rendered by those unyielding patriots, who have encountered all the frowns and persecution of power in different countries, to preserve this precious privilege to their country against the encroachments of despotism. Yet what sort of comparison is there between virtue of this kind, and the cavilling jealousy, which refuses a momentary delegation of power, in a particular district, filled with strangers, and menaced with instant invasion ? In this case there were only two alternatives ; in a very few days these high-minded patriots might serve their writ of *habeas corpus* on an insolent foe, domineering over the ruins of their country ; or, on his being put to flight, the General would surrender the power conferred upon him, under the heaviest responsibilities. In consequence of the omission of thanks by the legislature, some of the citizens of New-Orleans presented an address to the General ; the answer to which we extract, as we think it is less known than some of the other addresses which are contained in this ap-

pendix, and because it appears to be an unanswerable justification of his conduct. It is indeed no small part of the gratification attending these events at New-Orleans, that if a very high degree of military talent was discovered, there were also men who could wield the pen as well as the sword. There are several of these papers which cannot be surpassed in eloquence and style.

General Jackson's Answer.

"FELLOW SOLDIERS,

"Although born and bred in a land of freedom, popular favour has always been with me a secondary object. My first wish, in political life, has been to be useful to my country. Yet, I am not insensible to the good opinion of my fellow-citizens; I would do much to obtain it; but I cannot, for this purpose, sacrifice my own conscience, or what I conceive to be the interests of my country.

"These principles have prepared me to receive, with just satisfaction, the address you have presented. The first wish of my heart, the safety of your country, has been accomplished; and it affords me the greatest happiness to know that the means taken to secure this object, have met the approbation of those who have had the best opportunities of judging of their propriety, and who, from their various relations, might be supposed the most ready to censure any which had been improperly resorted to. The distinction you draw, gentlemen, between those who only declaim about civil rights, and those who fight to maintain them, shows how just and practical a knowledge you have of the true principles of liberty—without such knowledge all theory is useless or mischievous.

"Whenever the invaluable rights which we enjoy under our happy constitution are threatened by invasion, privileges the most dear, and which, in ordinary times, ought to be regarded as the most sacred, may be required to be infringed for their security. At such a crisis, we have only to determine whether we will suspend, for a time, the exercise of the latter, that we may secure the permanent enjoyment of the former. Is it wise, in such a moment, to sacrifice the spirit of the laws to the letter, and by adhering too strictly to the letter, lose the *substance* for ever, in order that we may, for an instant, preserve the *shadow*? It is not to be

imagined, that the express provisions of any written law can fully embrace emergencies, which suppose and occasion the suspension of all law but the highest and the last, that of self-preservation. No right is more precious to a freeman than that of suffrage; but had your election taken place on the 8th of January, would your declaimers have advised you to abandon the defence of your country, in order to exercise this inestimable privilege at the polls? Is it to be supposed that your General, if he regarded the important trust committed to his charge, would have permitted you to preserve the constitution, by an act which would have involved constitution, country and honour in one undistinguished ruin?

“What is more justly important than personal liberty? yet how can the civil enjoyment of this privilege be made to consist with the order, subordination and discipline of a camp? Let the sentinel be removed by *subpœna* from his post, let writs of *habeas corpus* carry away the officers from the lines, and the enemy may conquer your country, by only employing lawyers to defend your constitution.

“Private property is held sacred in all good governments, and particularly in our own, yet, shall the fear of invading it prevent a General from marching his army over a cornfield, or burning a house which protects the enemy?

“These, and a thousand other instances might be cited to show, that laws must sometimes be silent when necessity speaks. The only question with the friend of his country will be, have these laws been made to be silent wantonly and unnecessarily? If necessity dictated the measure, if a resort to it was important for the preservation of those rights which we esteem so dear, and in defence of which we had so willingly taken up arms, surely it would not have been becoming in the commander-in-chief to have shrunk from the responsibility which it involved. He did not shrink from it. In declaring martial law, his object, and his only object, was to embody the whole resources of the country, for its defence. That law, while it existed, necessarily suspended all rights and privileges inconsistent with its provisions. It is matter of surprise, that they who boast themselves the champions of those rights and privileges should not, when they were first put in danger by the proclamation of martial law, have manifested that lively sensibility, of which they have since made so ostentatious a display. So far, however, was this from be-

ing the case, that this measure not only met, then, the open support of those who, when their country was invaded, thought resistance a virtue, and the silent approbation of *all* ; but even received the particular recommendation and encouragement of many, who now inveigh the most bitterly against it. It was not until a victory, secured by that very measure, had lessened the danger which occasioned the resort to it, that the present *feeling guardians of our rights* discovered that the commanding General ought to have suffered his posts to be abandoned, through the interference of a foreign agent—his ranks to be thinned by desertion, and his whole army to be broken to pieces by mutiny ; while yet a powerful force of the enemy remained on our coast, and within a few hours sail of your city.

“I thought and acted differently. It was not until I discovered that the civil power stood no longer in need of the military for its support, that I restored to it its usual functions ; and the restoration was not delayed a moment after that period had arrived.

“Under these circumstances, fellow-soldiers, your resolution to *let others declaim about privileges and constitutional rights*, will never draw upon you the charge of being indifferent to those inestimable blessings ; your attachment to them has been proved by a stronger title—that of having nobly fought to preserve them.—You, who have thus supported them against the open pretensions of a powerful enemy, will never, I trust, surrender them to the underhand machinations of men who stand aloof in the hour of peril, and who, when the danger is gone, claim to be the ‘*defenders of your constitution*.’

“An honourable peace has dissolved our military connexion ; and, in a few days, I shall quit a country endeared to me by the most pleasing recollections. Among the most prominent of these, gentlemen, are those I shall ever entertain of the distinguished bravery, the exact discipline, the ardent zeal, and the important services of our corps. The offered friendship of each individual composing it, I receive with pleasure, and with sincerity reciprocate. I shall always pride myself on a fraternity with such men, created in such a cause.

ANDREW JACKSON.”

We are pleased with this work of Major Latour ; the narrative of the military events is minute and interesting, and the

appendix contains an invaluable collection of state papers. Besides the general interest which the work possesses for the citizens of the United States at large, it is so peculiarly interesting to the inhabitants of the Southern section, that we presume a second edition will be wanted, and under this impression, we offer a few suggestions to the author. If the translation be carefully revised, some French idioms may be corrected. We should recommend too, the striking out several epithets that occur in the work, in speaking of the enemy, such as "*atrocious, ferocious, savage,*" &c. &c. the calling rockets a "*diabolical invention.*" This is railing, and as a matter of taste, they should be expunged; but justice requires it also. They are probably not more ferocious and plundering than other nations; it will be better therefore to narrate the facts without qualifying epithets; these will be supplied when necessary, by the feelings of the reader. Besides, it is one of the great evils of war, that morality must give way before it; the end must often justify the means; and one side is frequently obliged to resort to the very conduct which had been execrated in the other. For instance, when the English made a disgraceful overture to the Baratarians, General Jackson, in a proclamation, spoke of these latter, considering them to be pirates, as a "*hellish banditti;*" yet the policy of self-preservation obliged him to employ them when their services were offered, and having rendered very essential ones, he recommended them for that pardon, which was afterwards granted by the President. In another case, he has given an account of a Tennessee rifleman, p. 128, who killed in ambush, three sentinels of the enemy; we do not much admire this exertion of Indian dexterity, the exercise of which, in cases like the present, is, we believe, proscribed by the usages of civilized warfare; but we refer to the candour of Major Latour, whether it does not lead to the justification of the action related, in the letter from *John Miller*, among the very curious intercepted letters, given in the appendix, and which he has stigmatized by printing the passage in *Italicks*?—A few corrections of this kind, and the work will be still more honourable to the author, and be a valuable addition to the library of the historian.

A Sermon delivered before the Governour, Council, and the Legislature of Massachusetts, May 29, 1816, being the Anniversary Election. By John Thornton Kirkland, D. D. President of Harvard University. pp. 27. Russell and Cutler.

THIS discourse is marked by the political mildness and candour, which we are glad to say, have lately so much prevailed. The President treats of publick spirit ; he considers its importance, and the obligations we are under to possess it ; he traces it to its causes in our affections and habits ; he then selects some of the more important objects of patriotism, and considers some of the modes in which this feeling ought to display itself. We congratulate the publick on the change of circumstances, which leaves wise and eloquent men at liberty, on such occasions, to address themselves indiscriminately to all who may choose to be present, and direct their attention to those great truths and principles, by contemplating which, we become more able and more willing to be good citizens, instead of extravagantly praising this set of men, and vehemently reproaching that ; and exciting their mutual rage, antipathy, contempt, and indignation.

The introduction to this Sermon is in a neat and classick form.

“ You enter this temple, civil Fathers, to offer prayers to the Supreme Governour of Nations for your country, as the object of your cares and labours ; and for yourselves, as the appointed guardians of that country's welfare.”

Sound principles of government, philosophick views of society, and rational exposition of the importance of religion, characterize this discourse. It is one of the few occasions, where a clergyman is called upon to preach a political discourse ; and Dr. Kirkland has performed this duty, without any narrow or temporary views of the politicks of the day. The only fault we are disposed to find with the discourse, is, that it is too much crowded with thought, to be fully understood in delivery ; and even in reading, it requires close attention. A more flowing manner, and a less number of topicks, with a fuller development of them, would make a more popular, per-

haps a more useful sermon to a majority of readers. The learned author, however, had a right to presume, that in laying open the foundations of a "*publick spirit*," and designating the true "*objects of patriotism*," every allusion and principle would be felt by the audience he was addressing. We should gladly extract several passages from this discourse, but in this part of the country, most of our readers have perused it: to furnish a specimen of it to those who have not seen a copy, we extract the two first sections of the second division of the discourse.

"1. The thoughts, wishes and prayers of a good man are directed to the *civil government* of his country.—Without government there can be no society.

"The government of every collective body of men is its blessing or its scourge, sometimes both by turns, or both with deductions and mitigations. Who shall be the depositaries of power, and how they shall discharge their trust, are questions which may involve every social benefit and external religious privilege. Whether the possessor of authority, the monarch, elective chief magistrate, or popular leader, be wise or weak, devoted to a part or considerate of the whole, guided by principle or swayed by passion, decides much of the good or evil of a state or nation. Thanks be to God, who, though he tries and visits, does not any where wholly forsake the children of men, nor leave them without check or remedy, entirely to the passions of one another, that the worst government is better than anarchy; that amidst all the flagrant defects and abuses of civil institutions, arising from the excess of resistance or restraint, from faction or despotism, so many of the sources of human subsistence and enjoyment remain unaffected; that men are able to accommodate themselves with greater or less contentment to evils resulting from established modes, and that so much of the happiness of every individual is derived rather from his feelings and character, than the precise circumstances in which he is placed.

"The specifick form of the government is commonly determined for us by the order of Providence; authority being variously distributed, in hereditary or elective rulers, in a few or in many, by the operation of permanent and uncontrollable causes. Our business in this respect is sel-

dom to change or abolish, but only to preserve, amend or improve the existing arrangement. The fortunes of *our* country are, under Heaven, staked on the issue of popular constitutions. The Supreme Disposer has assigned to these American States the solemn, the interesting destination of being the subjects of an experiment, on an extensive scale, on the capacity of men in society for self government.

“Happy for the result, if those who are to feel the restraint of laws, have integrity and wisdom for their enactment and administration;—happy if the sovereign, the popular majority, have the magnanimity and uprightness to bind himself to his duty, and refrain from all oppression of the minor part, overcoming the temptation to ‘feel power and forget right.’ It is included in our love of country to be attached to this republican form of civil polity, for its intrinsick advantages, and its adaptation to our character and habits and state of society, not because we think it absolutely best for every people under all circumstances; and that those who are not governed upon our model, are, of course, objects of our pity. Events of late years have brought just discredit upon political doctrines derived from metaphysical abstractions, in contempt of simple matters of fact. The project of applying a form of polity to a nation, without regard to circumstances, has been tried; and for a series of years, it produced scenes which surpassed description, at which humanity recoiled; till at length, after dreadful agitations, it subsided in a government so essentially military and despotick, that neither the actors in it nor the world could bear it. We are attached to our republican constitutions, because they are best for us; because, after all deductions, they have accomplished much good, and prove better than the fears of some of their truest friends; because they have cost the painful consultations of our wisest and best men to frame, and their strenuous exertions in successive periods to maintain.—We prize them for the dangers they have passed, and the storms they have had strength to outride.—Who will not wish and labour to preserve us a republick as long as possible, knowing that we cannot cease to be so without fearful convulsions, and the hazard of evils of immeasurable extent and indefinite duration?—Shall we not pray to the God of our fathers to secure to us the benefit of their councils and toils, and for this end to direct us in the proper methods of making our forms of

government adequate to their purposes ; to establish in the hearts of all a sacred respect for those fundamental laws and compacts, the constitutions, designed to restrain the majority in the exercise of their power ; and a disposition to amend and improve them in the spirit, which presided in their formation ? May he vouchsafe to incline us always to ' seek of him a right way for us, for our little ones, and for all our substance.'

"2. Not only *government*, but *liberty* is comprised in the wishes and prayers of a good man for his country. National independence, civil and religious freedom, are precious gifts of the Author of good. The love of liberty is the impulse of nature ; and the love of regulated liberty, the effect of love to mankind. We of this country may surely hold independence dear, whose fathers preferred a wilderness to bondage, and afterwards breasted the hazards of revolution, and met the perils and toils of a long and doubtful war, to bequeath the blessing to their children. We of this age may well prize the possession, who have seen the fate of nations, bowing to a haughty and inexorable master, bound to a foreign will, their spirit crushed under the yoke of a relentless conqueror, their treasures exhausted to satiate the rapacity of invading armies, and their sons compelled to fight the battles of a stranger.—Patriotism exalts the blessing of freedom as friendly to the exercise and improvement of all the respectable faculties of man, and auspicious to the discovery and communication of truth. It gives dignity to character, and interest to existence.

"Whilst the lover of his country and his race covets their rights for his fellow men and fellow countrymen, he intends real, not spurious freedom, the substance, and not merely the form. He wishes that civil liberty may be understood ; that it may be known to consist not so much in the power as in the security of every citizen ; and in his power so far only, as requisite or useful for his security. He prays that it may be esteemed the fruit of civil establishments and laws, and the cause, not of the poor against the rich, and of the humble against the eminent, but the protection of the weak from the strong, the simple from the cunning, and the innocent from the guilty.—It is ' equal rights, but not to equal things.' It secures to every one his honestly acquired condition, however peculiar and dis-

tinguished, and is the guardian alike of the riches of the opulent, and the pittance of the necessitous.

“The desire of the end implies regard to the means. The friend of his country wishes and prays that the virtues on which liberty depends may mark the character of the people; that the constitutional barriers, designed for its safeguard, may remain inviolate; that in the State and in the Nation it may be always under the patronage of a *legislature*, actuated by a regard to the publick welfare, and if not exempt from attachment to party, not blinded nor corrupted by it—sacrificing private views and passions to justice, and integrity; of a *judiciary*, skilled in jurisprudence, with an equal concern for the rights of all parties, unawed by the fear of encroachment from the other departments of the government; of an *executive*, employing its authority and influence, not with an anxious view to the prolongation of its power, or for the indulgence of its resentments, but to promote justice and union at home—safety and respectability abroad.

“He must desire that the benefit of the religious liberty, provided by the constitution and laws, may not be defeated by the prevalence of a spirit of exclusion and monopoly among the members of the same body of Christ.—He prays that the God of truth and love will direct each one to such views of his duty, as will reconcile his adherence to the dictates of his own conscience, with a reasonable respect for the conscience of his neighbour.

“Finally, it is worthy of a wise and good man to avoid being too much disturbed by the collisions and contests that are incident to liberty, and are the price of it; convinced that ‘liberty with all its parties and agitations is more desirable than slavery’—that we are placed in this world for exercise and discipline, to find our chief good in disposition and character; that the relation of living active natures to each other is not merely that of juxta position and place, ‘like that of stones in a wall or an arch, but of activity and co-operation in different functions, of balance, counterpoise, and natural correction, where the operation of any single power may be partial and wrong, and yet the general result, salutary and just.’”

The Story of Rimini, a poem, by Leigh Hunt. Boston, re-published by Wells & Lilly. 18mo. pp. 85. 50 cts.

NOVELTY, considered in its widest sense, has so large a share in our pleasures, that it is not very easy to discriminate in matters of taste, and to decide how much of the satisfaction we derive from any work is due to the infusion of this quality, or what portion is owing to its intrinsic merit. When fashion comes to the aid of novelty, as it generally does, those who are not borne away to mix with the admiring throng, form a very small minority, and are commonly reproached with want of feeling, or a feeling of envy. Nothing is more difficult than to define the true principles of taste; though certain examples of it will be received as models by all mankind. The most preposterous modes enforced by the tyrannical caprice of fashion, are first laughed at, then adopted, and only relinquished for some new extravagance; though each successive ebb of fashion, leaves *high and dry* some luckless individuals, beyond the reach of the next flood, and who remain like the wrecks of a former age, clothed in a costume that was graceful, or at least thought to be so in their time, while to those who are carried along by the current of the day, it appears uncouth and ludicrous. Yet the drapery and the head-dress of Ceres, has been beautiful from the age of Pericles to the present. In architecture, in sculpture and painting, there are certain proportions, which, like particular accords in Musick, contain within themselves perpetual harmony.

Is there any thing analogous to this in poetry? The verses of Homer, the hexameters of Virgil, the odes of Horace, are still admired, still received by men of cultivated minds, in every age of the world, however different the genius and productions of their own language may be, as models of expression and style; nor can this be treated as a blind submission to received opinion, since ingenious and learned men in various countries, have endeavoured to weaken the reputation of these classick writers, and the total failure of all their efforts, has only served to convince the world, that reason accorded with taste in sanctioning their admiration. Have we not then a right to infer, that modern as well as ancient languages, contain within themselves, certain standards which cannot be departed from, without losing the sup-

port of both taste and judgment? This inquiry seems necessary to form a correct opinion on many modern works, and to decide how far they are founded on those axioms of taste which long experience has confirmed, and may therefore be expected to be read with delight by posterity; or whether they owe their present popularity to the adventitious charms of mere novelty, without any real foundation in the established and immutable principles of harmony, and of course, destined at no very remote period, to become obsolete and neglected, a fate from which even the occurrence of many admirable passages may not be able to preserve them.

There seems to be three schools of poetry in our language. The first, composed of the writers from Chaucer to Milton, in which all that was not Saxon, was Latin or Italian; the second, of writers from Dryden to Johnson, who were restricted within narrower limits of composition, and who imitated the classic authors of antiquity, and the extreme correction and purity of the French writers, of the age of Louis XIVth. The third school is of our own time, which has overleaped every bound, ransacked the superstitions of every part of the world, explored the musty records of chivalry, and the extravagant tales of romance; so that Gothick, Gaelick, Turkish, and Hindoo tales and terms, are blended with English composition, till poetry, like commerce, has given evidence of her enterprise, by assembling in one spot, specimens of the language and manners of every people on the globe. This school has almost wholly abandoned the models, of what was considered the Augustan age of English literature, which it affects to consider tame and pedantick; and by engrafting the exuberance of modern research on the original stock of English poetry, in its ruder days, seemed determined, by the utmost license of versification, *per audaces dithyrambos*, to establish itself on the ruins of the classic models; its Pegasus is no longer under the guidance of regular discipline and chastened inspiration, but abandoning the beaten path, is manœuvred over the green fields and barren heaths, with a sort of Cossack vehemence and irregularity.

In this latter school there is Wordsworth, of whom we forbear to say any thing: Southey, whose crude, endless, blank-verse effusions, discover great facility and industry, and enough of genius to prove, that if he had written but one epick poem in the same period that he has produced half a dozen, he might

have gone down to future times ; but an author, who publishes some thousands of lines every two or three years, composes for the booksellers, and for circulating libraries. The most eminent of the modern school is Scott, and though his works now require a glossary, and will probably become more unintelligible hereafter, unless these authors are able to make their own corrupted language the prevailing one ; yet the distinctness and vivacity of his descriptions, the energy and happy manner in which he communicates to the reader the emotion of noble passions, will secure a lasting fame to his works, in spite of his delineation of dagger hilts and coloured hose, and the lamentable facility with which he has introduced into flowing verse, the names of every rude rock, and barbarous chieftain, which can be found in Scottish history.* Lord Byron may rank next, and he has shewn, amidst great incoherence, that, “the thoughts that breathe and words that burn,” are sometimes his. In the midnight conflagration, the fitting flame is often broken and obscured by volumes of smoke, as in his works the glare of some terrific passion, is veiled and interrupted by partial suppressions and abrupt transitions. All this, however, is mere affectation and trick, which catches the attention while it has novelty, and when that is past, will only fatigue it.

To these, and some others of less note, Mr. Hunt adds his efforts, though in a peculiar style. In his preface on the

* In some of the works of this poet, the proportion of mere mechanical rhyming, to the portions of sentiment or description that are worth reading, is as great as that of the recitative to the air, in a meagre Italian opera ; but there are passages in his works which must secure to them immortality. For instance, that fine burst of feeling, in the Lay of the last Minstrel, so successfully expressed, that we seem to read it at a breath ; “Breathes there the man with soul so dead,” &c. One other striking instance of his talent may be mentioned : Virgil’s description of Camilla, has always been admired.

*Illa vel intactæ segetis per summa volaret
Gramina, nec teneras cursu læsisset aristas :
Vel mare per medium, fluctu suspensa tumentis,
Ferret iter, celeres nec tingeret æquore plantas.*

This, however, is hyperbole : are not the following lines from the Lady of the Lake, without any exaggeration, and much more beautiful ?

*A foot more light, a step more true,
Ne’er from the heath-flower dash’d the dew,
E’en the light hare-bell rais’d its head,
Elastick from her airy tread.*

subject of his versification, he observes, "I do not hesitate to say, however, that Pope and the French school of versification have known the least on the subject, of any poets, perhaps, that ever wrote. They have mistaken mere smoothness, for harmony; and in fact, wrote as they did, because their ears were only sensible of a marked and uniform regularity. One of the most successful of Pope's imitators, Dr. Johnson, was confessedly insensible to musick. In speaking of such men, I allude, of course, only to their style in poetry, and not to their undisputed excellence in other matters." The inference respecting Dr. Johnson, recalls to mind another piece of reasoning, which we have somewhere met with, that a superannuated old man would make a good collector of the Customs, because Dr. Franklin, at a more advanced age, was the ornament of human nature. Mr. Hunt goes on to say, that Dryden, Spencer, Milton, Shakspeare, Chaucer, Ariosto, were judges of harmony, and examples of it; but that "all these are as different from Pope, as the bell in the steeple from the organ in the church, or the song of the nightingale, from the "cuckoo." This manner of speaking of Pope, is rash and ill-timed in the preface to a poem, whose versification has so many faults as the *Story of Rimini*. It is perhaps to be lamented, that this great writer paid so much deference to the models of antiquity, and those of the French school. With his wit, his learning, his industry, and with Mr. Hunt's permission, his harmonious ear, if he had indulged in a little liberty of versification, without degenerating into the wild licentiousness of our times, he would, perhaps, have left us some more admirable performances than even those we now possess. Still we are induced to believe, that his works will be popular, when some that are now favourites, may be forgotten.

The story of the present poem, was a favourite one with the early Italian writers, and is believed to have been founded in fact; Mr. Hunt derives it from the *Inferno* of Dante, and has divided his narration into four parts. The following is an outline of it: Guido, Duke of Ravenna, had an only daughter, perfect of course; he has concluded to marry her to *Giovanni*, Prince of Rimini. This Prince, though very accomplished, is of a haughty, morose character, but has a younger brother, *Paulo*, who is the very flower of courtesy and chivalry. The old man, fond of intrigue, and thinking that the first

impression of the destined husband on his daughter, who had "stout notions on the marrying score," might not be favourable, suggests to him that he had better send his brother to receive her hand by proxy. He consents to this, and the arrangement is unknown to Francesca, the daughter of Guido. The day is appointed, all Ravenna is on tiptoe to see the fortunate Prince, who is to receive the hand of the beautiful Francesca. Every preparation is made to receive him; the description of this festival, the retinue of Paulo, and their first sight of each other, occupies the first Canto. Francesca is most favourably struck with the first appearance of Paulo, and thinks her fate is not a hard one; then it is explained to her, that he is not the person who is to be her husband, that he comes to represent his brother; and her father tells her they are so much alike that seeing the one, she beholds the other; Paulo relieves her embarrassment by his frank and graceful address, and in the hurry and confusion of her feelings she consents to wed Giovanni, and Paulo receives her as his proxy, and takes her home to the Castle of Rimini. This occupies the second canto. She soon begins to perceive the different character of the two brothers. The first impression made by Paulo, is strengthened every day; constantly together, and left to themselves by the elder brother, their mutual passion increases, and after long struggling, their crime is consummated, which reduces them both to irretrievable wretchedness. This narration, by no means an easy one, is given with great skill and delicacy; and if the moral be questionable, there is nothing in the manner to offend. This takes up the third canto. Paulo and Francesca avoid each other as much as possible; their fatal passion and the remorse it occasions, gradually undermines their spirits and health. Giovanni, at last receives a hint of what has taken place; and the distress of his wife in her sleep, uttered in some broken expressions, confirms his suspicion. He rises, and at the point of day calls his brother, to the tilt yard, asks him to deny the fact in one single word; or, drawing his sword, to "meet him this"—they skirmish, and Paulo watches an opportunity to rush on his brother's sword, and falls. A few words from him, and a squeeze of the hand from Giovanni, is the token of pardon at the moment of death. Francesca, reduced to extreme weakness, on being informed of this event, which is communicated

by the Squire of Paulo in a last message from his master, is convulsed and expires. Giovanni, on being informed how all these misfortunes had originated, writes a letter to old Guido, spares him any reproaches, tells him it is fit that the two bodies should not be separated, but that it cannot be where he resides, and sends them on a princely hearse to Ravenna. The wretched old man, when he sees it approach, loses his senses, and is heard of no more, and the unfortunate pair are buried in one grave, which concludes the poem.

We shall make some extracts ; the first describing the two brothers, from the third Canto, when the wretched Francesca found that all her affections were irretrievably his, whom she had first seen, and her person the other's.

Some likeness was there 'twixt the two,—an air
At times, a cheek, a colour of the hair,
A tone, when speaking of indifferent things ;
Nor, by the scale of common measurings,
Would you say more perhaps, than that the one
Was more robust, the other finelier spun ;
That of the two, Giovanni was the graver,
Paulo the livelier, and the more in favour.

Some tastes there were indeed, that would prefer
Giovanni's countenance as the martialler ;
And 'twas a soldier's truly, if an eye
Ardent and cool at once, drawn-back and high,
An eagle's nose, and a determined lip,
Were the best marks of manly soldiership.
Paulo's was fashioned in a different mould,
And finer still, I think ; for though 'twas bold,
When boldness was required, and could put on
A glowing frown, as if an angel shone,
Yet there was nothing in it one might call
A stamp exclusive, or professional,—
No courtier's face, and yet its smile was ready,—
No scholar's, yet its look was deep and steady,—
No soldier's, for its power was all of mind,
Too true for violence, and too refined.
A graceful nose was his, lightsomely brought
Down from a forehead of clear-spirited thought ;
Wisdom looked sweet and inward from his eye ;
And round his mouth was sensibility ;—
It was a face, in short, seemed made to show
How far the genuine flesh and blood could go ;—
A morning glass of unaffected nature,—
Something, that baffled every pompous feature,—
The visage of a glorious human creature.

If any points there were, at which they came
 Nearer together, 'twas in knightly fame,
 And all accomplishments that art may know,—
 Hunting, and princely hawking, and the bow,
 The rush together in the bright-eyed list,
 Fore-thoughted chess, the riddle rarely missed,
 And the decision of still knottier points.
 With knife in hand, of boar and peacock joints,—
 Things, that might shake the fame that Tristan got,
 And bring a doubt on perfect Launcelot.
 But leave we knighthood to the former part ;
 The tale I tell is of the human heart.

The worst of Prince Giovanni, as his bride
 Too quickly found was an ill-tempered pride.
 Bold, handsome, able if he chose to please,
 Punctual and right in common offices,
 He lost the sight of conduct's only worth,
 The scattering smiles on this uneasy earth,
 And on the strength of virtues of small weight,
 Claimed towards himself the exercise of great.
 He kept no reckoning with his sweets and sour ;—
 He'd hold a sullen countenance for hours,
 And then, if pleased to cheer himself a space,
 Look for the immediate rapture in your face,
 And wonder that a cloud could still be there,
 How small soever, when his own was fair.
 Yet such is conscience,—so designed to keep
 Stern, central watch, though all things else go sleep,
 And so much knowledge of one's self there lies
 Cored, after all, in our complacencies,
 That no suspicion would have touched him more,
 Than that of wanting on the generous score :
 He would have whelmed you with a weight of scorn,
 Been proud at eve, inflexible at morn,
 In short, ill-tempered for a week to come,
 And all to strike that desperate error dumb.
 Taste had he, in a word, for high-turned merit,
 But not the patience, or the genial spirit ;
 And so he made, 'twixt virtue and defect,
 A sort of fierce demand on your respect,
 Which, if assisted by his high degree,
 It gave him in some eyes a dignity,
 And struck a meaner difference in the many,
 Left him, at last, unloveable with any.

From this complexion in the reigning brother,
 His younger birth perhaps had saved the other.
 Born to a homage less gratuitous,
 He learned to win a nobler for his house ;
 And both from habit and a genial heart,
 Without much trouble of the reasoning art,
 Found this the wisdom and the sovereign good,—
 To be, and make, as happy as he could.

Not that he saw, or thought he saw, beyond
 His general age, and could not be as fond
 Of wars and creeds as any of his race.—
 But most he loved a happy human face ;
 And whereso'er his fine, frank eyes were thrown,
 He struck the looks he wished for with his own.
 His danger was, lest, feeling as he did,
 Too lightly he might leap o'er means forbid,
 And in some tempting hour lose sight of crime
 O'er some sweet face too happy for the time ;
 But fears like these he never entertained,
 And had they crossed him, would have been disdained.
 Warm was his youth, 'tis true—nor had been free
 From lighter loves,—but virtue revered he,
 And had been kept from men of pleasure's cares
 By dint of feelings still more warm than theirs.
 So what but service leaped where'er he went !
 Was there a tilt-day or a tournament,—
 For welcome grace there rode not such another,
 Nor yet for strength, except his lordly brother,
 Was there a court day, or a sparkling feast,
 Or better still,—in my ideas, at least,—
 A summer party to the greenwood shade,
 With lutes prepared, and cloth on herbage laid,
 And ladies' laughter coming through the air,—
 He was the readiest and the blithest there ;
 And made the time so exquisitely pass
 With stories told with elbow on the grass,
 Or touched the musick in his turn so finely,
 That all he did, they thought, was done divinely.

The manner in which Paulo's love for her is daily increased,
 is thus described :

Paulo, meantime, who ever since the day
 He saw her sweet looks bending o'er his way,
 Had stored them up, unconsciously, as graces
 By which to judge all other forms and faces,
 Had learnt, I know not how, the secret snare,
 Which gave her up, that evening, to his care.
 Some babbler, may-be, of old Guido's court,
 Or foolish friend had told him, half in sport :
 But to his heart the fatal flattery went ;
 And grave he grew, and inwardly intent,
 And ran back, in his mind, with sudden spring,
 Look, gesture, smile, speech, silence, every thing,
 Even what before had seemed indifference,
 And read them over in another sense.
 Then would he blush with sudden self-disdain,
 To think how fanciful he was, and vain ;
 And with half angry, half regretful sigh,
 Tossing his chin, and feigning a free eye,
 Breathe off, as 'twere, the idle tale, and look
 About him for his falcon or his book,

Scorning that ever he should entertain
One thought that in the end might give his brother pain.

This start however came so often round,—
So often fell he in deep thought, and found
Occasion to renew his carelessness,
Yet every time the power grown less and less,
That by degress, half wearied, half inclined,
To the sweet struggling image he resigned ;
And merely, as he thought, to make the best
Of what by force would come about his breast.
Began to bend down his admiring eyes
On all her touching looks and qualities,
Turning their shapely sweetness every way,
Till 'twas his food and habit day by day,
And she became companion of his thought ;
Silence her gentleness before him brought,
Society her sense, reading her books,
Musick her voice, every sweet thing her looks,
Which sometimes seemed, when he sat fixed awhile,
To steal beneath his eyes with upward smile :
And did he stroll into some lonely place,
Under the trees, upon the thick soft grass,
How charming, would he think, to see her here ;
How heightened then and perfect would appear
The two divinest things this world has got,
A lovely woman in a rural spot !

We shall make one more extract, the duel between the brothers. Giovanni's suspicions had been awakened ; Francesca, in a troubled sleep, had uttered some broken phrases, which roused all his passion. He rose immediately, and sought his brother.

The prince looked at her hastily ;—no more ;
He dresses, takes his sword, and through the door
Goes, like a spirit, in the morning air ;—
His squire awaked attends ; and they repair,
Silent as wonder, to his brother's room :—
His squire calls him up too ; and forth they come.
The brothers meet,—Giovanni scarce in breath,
Yet firm and fierce, Paulo as pale as death.
' May I request, sir,' said the prince, and frowned,
' Your ear a moment in the tilting ground ?'
' *There*, brother ?' answered Paulo, with an air
Surprised and shocked. ' Yes *brother*,' cried he, ' *there*,
The word smote crushingly ; and paler still,
He bowed, and moved his lips, as waiting on his will.

Giovanni turned, and from the tower descending.
The squires, with looks of sad surprise, attending,
They issued forth in the moist-striking air,
And toward the tilt-yard crossed a planted square.

'Twas a fresh autumn dawn, vigorous and chill ;
 The lightsome morning-star was sparkling still,
 Ere it turned in to heaven ; and far away
 Appeared the streaky fingers of the day.
 An opening in the trees took Paulo's eye,
 As, with his brother, mutely he went by :
 It was a glimpse of the tall wooded mound,
 That screened Francesca's favourite spot of ground :
 Massy and dark in the clear twilight stood,
 As in a lingering sleep, the solemn wood ;
 And through the bowering arch, which led inside,
 He almost fancied once, that he descried
 A marble gleam, where the pavilion lay ;—
 Starting he turned, and looked another way.

Arrived, and the two squires withdrawn apart,
 The prince spoke low, as with a labouring heart,
 And said, ' Before you answer what you can,
 ' I wish to tell you, as a gentleman,
 ' That what you may confess,' (and as he spoke
 His voice with breathless and pale passion broke)
 ' Will implicate no person known to you,
 More than disquiet in its sleep may do.'
 Paulo's heart bled : he waved his hand, and bent
 His head a little in acknowledgment.
 ' Say then, sir, if you can,' continued he,
 ' One word will do—you have not injured me :
 ' Tell me but so, and I shall bear the pain
 ' Of having asked a question I disdain ;—
 ' But utter nothing, if not that one word ;
 ' And meet me this :—he stopped, and drew his sword.

This poem should be read twice to form a just opinion of its merits ; the unusual, and in many places, the awkward versification, will be apt to disgust the reader ; we found more pleasure in the second perusal than the first. It contains some exquisite expressions of sentiment, and many passages that shew an accurate and nice observation of the most delicate emotions of the human heart ; the author also discovers a fine perception of harmony, in choosing the seasons and the picturesque circumstances of landscape, to accompany the joyous and painful feelings of the human breast. Many persons have judged that Lord Byron must possess a bad heart, because he delights in painting the bad and violent passions almost exclusively. By the same rule, Mr. Hunt should be presumed to have a most amiable character, since he so frequently describes frankness, openness, cheerfulness, &c. He does this almost to satiety ; and there is a repetition of such description that be-

comes insipid. In the preface, he says he shall be satisfied if it meets "the perusal of ingenuous eyes, and be felt a little by the hearts that look through them." In the poem are such lines as the following :

"Of frank Esmeriald with his open face"

"The poet looks out in his earnest face"

"In the frank lifting of his cordial eyes."

"Breathes like a bright eyed face that laughs out openly."

The same thought, with little variation, occurs too often. *Toujours perdrix.*—

In the preface, the author exhibits a self complacency in reviewing his efforts, that is very amusing ; but leaves little hope, that he would be willing to admit the faults which disfigure the beauties of this poem. We do not know if he would not rank these imperfections among its merits. There has been ample time for revision, since he informs us that a part of it was written to cheer the long and tedious hours of imprisonment,* and the poem must therefore have been undertaken three years since. It may be useful to notice a few of these faults for the benefit of those, who, on this side of the Atlantick, may be disposed to adopt this manner ; which has certainly much of the raciness of old English poetry.

In the first place, there is a needless introduction of new, or obsolete words, a practice which is such a prevailing rage among the modern writers in England. This furbishing up of musty terms, like pieces of antique armour to make a parade before us, but poorly conceals the deficiency of discipline and skill, and will never pass in a review. We cannot overlook such words as the following, among many others : *swirl, clip-some, unbedinned, swaling*, (applied to a feather in the bonnet) *cored*. An ancient word may now and then be introduced to advantage, as the helmet, and the cuirass have been borrowed from antiquity ; but they will only answer for particular service, and should be made use of very sparingly. The rhymes are extremely careless, for instance, *was and pass, was and grass*, occur, each of them twice, *place and grass*, with several others

* Mr. Hunt is of American origin ; he and his brother are the proprietors of the *Examiner*, a Sunday newspaper. They were condemned to a heavy fine, and an imprisonment of two years in separate prisons, for a libel on the Prince Regent of England.

as bad. The word *and*, is used vastly too much, in many instances where it would have been easy to avoid it. There are some couplets with a Hudibrastick kind of termination, that borders on the ridiculous; for instance,

How placidly, yet fast, the days succeeded
With one who thought and felt so much as she did.

We submit it to the judgment of the most lenient, if such lines as the following can be tolerated?

But what is of the most accomplished air,
Some with a drag dangling from the cap's crest.
A lofty spirit the former was, and proud.
And with a double smile open the door.
Better spent elsewhere and beneath his powers.
Hyacinth handsome with his clustering locks.
Indeed the whole was leafy and it had
A winding stream about clear and glad.

Mr. Hunt's attempt to give us these lines for poetry, is a more outrageous proceeding than any we recollect, since the time when the brown loaf was ordered to be taken as a leg of mutton; we protest against it.* In spite of these defects, we think that those who read it, with a willingness to perceive its beauties, will find that it possesses many.

* Since writing these remarks, we have seen a notice of this poem in the Eclectick Review, in which there is a curious instance of *professional* wariness; that Review is conducted by clergymen. In describing the death of Francesca, he begins the account of her agony with these lines:

O, who that feels one godlike spark within,
Shall say that earthly suffering cancels not frail sin?
There lay she praying, upwardly intent,
Like a fair statue on a monument, &c.

The Reviewers, who speak handsomely of the poem, regret it should throw any doubts on the *doctrine of the atonement*. It may be that the author had some deep insidious design, in the passage in question; but we confess it would never have occurred to our dull apprehension: theologians ought not to forget, in their intercourse with the world, that it is not so learned as themselves; and that it is better, unless the intention be palpable, not to create dangers by their allusions, which would never have existed, if they had not interfered.

CAMBRIDGE.

Abstract of meteorological observations for April and May, taken at Cambridge. By Professor Farrar.

		Barometer.			Thermometer.		
		7 A.M.	2 P.M.	7 P.M.	7 A.M.	2 P.M.	9 P.M.
April,	{ Greatest	30.55	30.48	30.41	59°	85°	61°
	{ Mean	29.958	29.943	29.906	36.9	53.2	42.5
	{ Least	29.56	29.56	29.58	21	41	25
May.	{ Greatest	30.38	30.41	30.37	66	81	63
	{ Mean	30.014	30.021	30.020	48.9	61.9	45.6
	{ Least	29.69	29.58	29.59	38	45	37

April 1, a shower, with much thunder and lightning. 5th and 6th, rain; 11th and 12th, snow, about three inches; 20th, a little rain—whole quantity of rain and snow reduced to water, 2.30 inches.

May 1, a shower; 11th, a shower, with thunder and lightning; 12th, a violent storm; 22d, a shower, with thunder and lightning; 25th and 26th, considerable rain—whole quantity of rain 5.48 inches.

Mean state of the thermometer in April, about 2 1-2 degrees below the average temperature of the month for the last 25 years; that of May, 4 1-2 below. There have been only two years in which the month of May has been colder, than that of the present year, during the period above mentioned. These were 1793 and 1812.



BOWDOIN COLLEGE, BRUNSWICK.

Meteorological Journal for April. By Professor Cleaveland.

Mean temperature from three observations each day, 42° 56°

Ditto maxima of heat and cold, 40.03

Mean height of Barometer, 29.687 in.

Greatest monthly range of do. 1.01

Rain and snow reduced to water 1.32

On the 30th the range of the thermometer was 51°.

For MAY.

Mean temperature from three observations each day, 50.53

Ditto maxima of heat and cold, 47.94

Mean height of Barometer, 29.789 in.

Greatest monthly range of do. 8.90

Rain 4.153

On the 7th and 21st, there was thunder, and on the former day it was accompanied with hail, the form of which was remarkable—it was in hexangular pyramids, sometimes half an inch in length.

[The following article, copied from the *Columbian Centinel*, is a continuation by the same gentleman, of the communication on *the spots on the sun* in our last number. There seems very little hope of forming any satisfactory theory respecting these phenomena, with the very few data on which astronomers have to proceed. It is doubtful what effect they may have on our climate. The spots however have been unusually numerous this season, and the weather has been remarkably cold, not only throughout the United States, but in Europe and in the West Indies, at least in the Island of Cuba. The observation in the following paper, that the light of the Sun is less brilliant and dazzling than usual, is unquestionably well founded. We have remarked at different times during the present season, on days when the sky was perfectly clear, that there was a degree of feebleness and dimness in the Sun's rays, not unlike the effect produced by a partial eclipse.—If the Sun should be tired of illuminating this gloomy little planet, and by extinguishing his light, leave us wholly in the dark, what would be the most valuable thing on this globe? We shall thank any ingenious correspondent for an answer.]

The account of the *Spots on the Sun*, republished in the *CENTINEL* of Wednesday last, was written soon after the large spot appeared, which excited so much curiosity. The Sun has been frequently examined since with good telescopes, and every uncommon appearance carefully noted. The large spot, which was visible to the naked eye about the first of May, passed over the sun, and disappeared in the usual manner. In about fourteen days after, a large spot was seen entering the eastern limb of the sun. It moved on and crossed the disk like the former, in the same direction, and apparently through the same regions. There is every reason to believe, that it was the same spot. The time of its appearance and the place of its path, accord very well with such a supposition.—Its form, however, was materially different. At first it was a cluster, whose breadth was one half or one third of its length. On its return, it was drawn out like a string of beads, its length being an eighth part of the diameter of the Sun, and its breadth not more than one tenth of its length; but the individual parts appeared to have the same general character. They consisted of little black specks encircled with shadows of considerable extent. In some parts entirely detached and insulated, in others apparently crowded together. The whole space covered, it was judged, was nearly equal to that occupied by the cluster. But it was evidently growing less, the interruptions became more conspicuous, and it seemed to be resolving itself into several distinct portions.

This spot, according to the regular rotation of the Sun, ought to have returned again about the 20th or 21st of June, had

it continued without changing its place. But no trace of it was to be found at this time. On the 1st of July, a large spot presented itself upon the eastern border of the Sun. It was long and narrow, and much broken. The two ends were most conspicuous. The intermediate parts were faint. They were composed chiefly of that dusky appearance, which surrounds a spot.—A few black specks were just distinguishable. After a few days, it was difficult to trace any connexion between the two extremities. They began to appear, like two independent spots. They have now disappeared behind the Sun. There would be little doubt of this being a second return of the great spot, were it not, that it was about a week too late. Such a retardation is not very easily reconciled with the received hypothesis. It is still more difficult to account for the uncommon character of the season, without departing from Dr. HERSCHEL'S views on this subject. If the spots are occasioned by an abundance of fuel, we might expect an abundance of heat; but the season has been cold almost beyond example. The Sun's rays, it has been frequently remarked, have not their usual power. There appears to be less intensity of light as well as heat. Vegetation is languid, and the fruits of the season, it is said, are without their accustomed flavour. Instead of growing warmer, as the spots become less, the weather has been growing relatively colder. The average state of the thermometer in May was about four and a half degrees below the mean temperature of the month; that of June was six degrees; that of July, including the first fifteen days, about ten degrees below. The summer hitherto has been the coldest that has occurred for the last twenty-five years.

It might be supposed, that the largest spots would occasion a sensible diminution of the Sun's rays, by a diminution of the radiating surface. But the largest spot scarcely amounted to a five hundredth part of the Sun's disk, and the effect of a much greater obscuration by the interposition of the Moon is very inconsiderable. It is hardly to be presumed, therefore, that so small a proportion of the Sun's heating and illuminating power, as that which is indicated by the relative magnitude of a spot, would be capable of being observed. Besides, the alternation of cold and warm weather appears to have no connexion with the appearance or disappearance of the spots, the mean heat during the first and last of May, when the sun was most obscured, was fifty-two degrees and six tenths. The mean heat during the rest of the month, when the spot was on the other side of the sun, was fifty-one degrees eight tenths. The mean heat, while the spot was visible in June, was sixty-two degrees and four tenths. Mean heat during its absence sixty degrees. Mean heat of the first fourteen days of July, sixty-three degrees. The most remarkable succession of cold days was from the 4th to the 11th of June,

during which time there were only a few small spots. The very warm days also, which occurred in June, were at a time when the large spots were invisible. We may expect more particular information on this subject from the venerable Dr. HERSCHEL.

Cambridge, July 15th, 1816.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

Bowdoin prize dissertation. Three *first* prizes of thirty dollars each, and three *second* prizes of twenty dollars each, were offered in October last, for dissertations on either of several subjects proposed; the candidates as usual to subscribe fictitious names to their productions, with their Academick standing subjoined: the real names to be in sealed papers. In July the prizes were adjudged as follows;

A first premium to a Dissertation on the Christian doctrine of Faith, by ISAAC BOYLE, a senior Bachelor.--

On the reciprocal influence of Literature and Morals, by JOHN G. PALFREY, a junior Bachelor.

A Dissertation on the importance of Commerce, as a source of publick and private wealth, by JUSTIN WRIGHT CLARK, a senior sophister.

Second premium to a Dissertation on the Iliad, by HENRY BROMFIELD PEARSON, a senior sophister.

A Dissertation on the reciprocal influence of literature and morals, by GEORGE BANCROFT, a junior sophister.

A Dissertation on the Iliad, by JOHN H. WILKINS, a sophomore.

Theological Establishment. The subscribers to the Proposal for increasing the means for the education of Students in Divinity, and Candidates for the Ministry at the University, assembled on the 17th July, and formed a Society for the promotion of Theological education at the University, with suitable officers, and five Trustees to act with the Corporation, in the appropriation of the funds.

The extended Theological School will probably commence with the next College year, the instruction to be given by different professors and instructors already established at the University. With some addition to the fund, it will be in the power of the Board to institute another Theological Professorship with a particular view to Resident Graduates studying divinity.

Some gentlemen of the Linnean Society have recently made an excursion to visit the mountains of New-Hampshire. They ascertained the height of the *Monadnock* to be 3450 feet, its summit composed of *micaceous schistus*. The *Ascutney* 3106

feet, its summit of *Granite*. The *White Mountains* 6230, the summit of *gneiss*, the sides *micaceous schistus*. The limit of forest trees at the height of 4428 feet. These heights were ascertained by calculations of barometrical observations. The Barometer employed on the *Monadnock* and the *Ascutney* was not in perfect order, and these measurements may therefore be subject to some error. That employed on the *White Mountains*, was regulated with one kept by professor Farrar at Cambridge, and on being compared with it on their return, it was found not to have varied at all. This measurement therefore may be presumed to be nearly accurate. They found few interesting minerals, but discovered three or four new species of plants. An account of the *Monadnock* has been published by Mr. Dana, in the last number of the *New-England Medical Journal*; and we hope a particular account of the other mountains will be given to the publick. They found vegetation in Mosses to the very summit of the *White Mountains*.

TO THE EDITOR.

SIR,

In the remarks respecting the *Sandwich Islands* in the last number of your Review, there is an omission I wish you to have the goodness to supply. Two Gentlemen are referred to as having made a contract with the King of those Islands, and in a note their names are mentioned. The reference should have been to *three* gentlemen, and the name of Captain *Jonathan Windship* is omitted. I am the more anxious this accidental mistake should be corrected, as the gentleman omitted, is the one, to whom the merit of the discovery of *Sandal Wood* at those Islands, peculiarly belongs.

Manufacturer's Ball. At the late annual *Lincolnshire stuff* Ball, which was instituted for the encouragement of that manufacture, most of the ladies wore *muslins*. This is not much unlike the *Barbers*, who went to *St. James's* some years ago to petition his Majesty to wear a wig, and most of them actually appeared with their own hair dressed and powdered.

Receipt for making leather water proof. Mix together one quarter of a pound of tallow, three ounces of common turpentine, one ounce of shellack, and one ounce of bee's wax. Make the boots or shoes perfectly dry (this is absolutely essential) and warm, and rub in this mixture, as hot as possible, and repeat this operation every other day, for at least four times successively. The articles thus impregnated will be found perfectly water proof.

NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW

AND

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SEPTEMBER, 1816.

*An Address pronounced before the Society of Φ. B. K.
on Thursday 29th August, 1816. By FRANCIS C.
GRAY, Esq.*

MEN of letters have always been reproached with ignorance of the world. I do not mean ignorance of the forms of society, but of the interests and characters of their fellow creatures. This reproach is generally merited. The gratification of the desires, by which most of them are impelled, does not demand any very profound knowledge of human nature.

But while crowds frequent the paths of literature in pursuit of pleasure, wealth or applause, it is the object of the philosophy, which forms our bond of union, to improve our own characters, and that of the society in which we live. The attainment of this object requires an intimate acquaintance with the wants, the feelings, and the capacities of those, whom we wish to improve. Personal observation is the most obvious means of acquiring this knowledge: but observation is confined to a narrow circle, narrower even than the influence of our actions, for their consequences descend upon generation after generation; it regards but a small territory and a single age. All within its view are early warped in the same direction, disguised by the same manners and customs, disfigured by the prejudices, which

are stamped and branded upon them by the same education and the same examples.

It is impossible to discriminate, how much of this motley being is his own work, and how much that of his maker, how far he has improved or corrupted his natural character, without examining him in every diversity of climate and education, and government, and distinguishing those faculties and feelings, which remain every where the same, from those, which vary with his situation.

To accomplish this by observation alone, would require a life of ages. We must have recourse to the experience of others, to assist us in the task. Not to that of travellers; for the most faithful of their narratives sketches only the dress, the habits and manners of the people, whom it describes, but cannot acquaint us with the schemes of their ambition, their intrigues, their rivalries, or their moral revolutions. The only adequate resource is History, which developes, not only the projects, and labours, and fortunes of a single generation, but their long train of causes and effects, through successive ages, and displays the consequences on distant nations, of events, whose effects seemed to our narrow experience to terminate in the little circle where they were performed, and with the lives of those who performed them.

This study thus lies at the very foundation of all liberal and enlightened projects for the publick good. Nor is this all—its influence extends to the narrower path of private virtue and daily duty. Its utility is universally admitted, but few inquire why it is useful, and how it may be rendered most so; few are sensible that it has any tendency to invigorate their own virtues or promote the good of others. Many find in it amusement for the imagination and exercise for the memory, but few derive from it any new motive to excellence, any new principle of conduct, or any additional means of being useful. Many court history as the cheering companion of their solitary hours, but few make her the guide and the counsellor of life.

In what manner does history direct our conduct? It is said to enrich us with the experience of others, and to record the actions of illustrious men for our imitation. But how are we to imitate them? Are we to wait till some strange concurrence of circumstances shall place us in a situation precisely similar to that of one of the great men

of antiquity, that we may repeat his deeds? The wheel of destiny may revolve for ever, and no such coincidence recur. If every event in the life of every human being were recorded, we could have little hope of discovering the perfect parallel of a single incident of our lives, still less of finding a model for the imitation of every day and every hour. But history relates the shock of armies, the subversion of governments, the fate of nations; and preserves the memory of those who have swayed the rod of dominion, directed the destinies of millions, and wielded the resources of empires. How are we to find in such events and in such characters, warnings of our fate and examples for our imitation? By tracing these events to their causes, and the actions of these distinguished characters to their motives. Those governments and those nations were men, gifted with the same faculties, exposed to the same temptations, and impelled by the same passions as ourselves. Their virtues and their failings were our own, were those of human nature. These are to be copied and avoided, not their deeds, their characters should be investigated, not their conduct; or rather their conduct should be scrutinized only as a clue to their characters. We are not to treasure up their actions as objects of imitation, but to derive from them general principles and broad maxims of moral and political duty. The object of this study is not to store our memories with facts, but to make us familiar with men. Hence the importance of any particular history is not to be estimated by the wealth, prosperity or power of the nation, whose annals it preserves, by the number of battles it relates, or the consequences of the revolutions it records. The true test of its merit are the fidelity and minuteness, with which it recounts the actions of its heroes, the sagacity with which it penetrates their motives, and the correctness, with which it developes their characters.

These excellencies are most successfully sought in those authors, who transmit the history of their own age and nation, since they possess the most numerous and authentick sources of information for ascertaining the motives and the circumstances of the actions which they relate.

The mere record of events, divested or rather plundered of the passions, opinions and motives of their actors, is cold and lifeless. How often does the eye linger on its words, while the attention is slumbering or distracted? How often

do we abandon it with disgust, or hurry through it as a task from which we derive only one pleasure, that of reaching its conclusion? It is no trifling superiority of the historian of his own times, no humble merit, that his writings make a deeper impression on the memory; excite a livelier interest and win a stronger confidence.

Who ever slumbered over the page of Xenophon, or hastened to close the volume of Cæsar; or turned without regret from the winning narrative of D'Avila? Who ever forgot the animated portraits drawn by the hand of Clarendon? who makes us at once familiar with all his illustrious contemporaries, and hardly touches a character but it starts up in all its natural proportions.

But professed historians should not be our only instructors. The philosopher, the poet, the orator, writers in every department of literature, illustrate the character, opinions and manners of the people among whom they live. It may be assumed therefore for the general regulation of our studies, that those periods are most worthy of attention, which are best described, and that those are best described, in which letters are most successfully cultivated. The practice of all seminaries of education accords with this opinion. The admiration of youth is early directed to those periods of ancient history, which are distinguished by the greatest number of eminent writers; and it is considered disgraceful to be ignorant of their works, rather than meritorious to be familiar with them.

The era before which the history of modern Europe should be read, and after which it should be studied, has been fixed by Lord Bolingbroke at the commencement of the sixteenth century, "because at a little before or a little after this point of time, all those events happened, and all those revolutions began, that have produced so vast a change in the manners, customs, and interests of particular nations; and in the whole policy of the Christian world."

It may be regarded as an additional motive for commencing our study of modern history at this period, that in this century, lived many of the best historians of their own age, whom modern Europe has produced. Fra Paolo, Guicciardini, Sully, D'Avila, and Macchiavelli, whose historical works are replete with the purest principles of political integrity, and whose life was devoted to the cause of liberty, though the misconstruction of his little treatise called the

Prince, has rendered his name a bye-word and a reproach among all nations. To these may be added the name of the impartial De Thou, whose prefatory address to Henry IV. of France, is in itself the full price of immortality; considering the period when it was written, it is one of the noblest assertions of religious toleration that literature can boast, and cannot be read even now, without astonishment and delight.

How long shall the writings of these illustrious men be neglected for compilations and abridgments?

But there is one portion of history particularly worthy of your attention, though it does not echo the voice of eloquence nor reflect the rays of glory.

The early history of New-England.

Indeed it deserves your most diligent study, for all our literary schemes, and labours, and cares, and hopes, should be directed to our country, to the land which contains all that we love, and all that most of us can benefit, the people whom we can instruct, the institutions which we can improve.

This history has been treated with unmerited neglect. Its memorials are rude, but they are faithful; transmitted to us by the rulers and the guides of the people, who had the best means of ascertaining, not only the facts which they relate, but their motives; who record their own intrigues and follies, and those of their contemporaries, with a simplicity, which excites at once our smiles and our confidence; or if they sometimes attempt to conceal them, do it with so flimsy a pretext, as proves that they were not accustomed to dissimulation. The historian will not find in them models of style, nor the poet and orator treasures of splendid imagery or nervous diction; but many of their narratives are replete with moral and political wisdom; the virtues and vices of their heroes are exerted with a promptitude and energy, which render them striking examples.

Nor is their history devoid of interest. If it be delightful to trace the origin of any illustrious people, however involved in obscurity or disfigured by fable, to watch the first tottering steps of an infant nation, and observe the gradual expansion of its strength, and the development of its character; it cannot be entirely uninteresting to examine the authentick records of our own country, whose strange establishment, and almost miraculous progress are without

a precedent in the history of the world ; to become acquainted with the conduct and the motives of its founders, of those from whom we derive our manners and customs and prejudices ; much varied in their descent through several generations, but still bearing deep traces of their origin, still strongly marked with the peculiarities of that singular people, who abandoned the comforts, and the habits, and the very sight of civilization, for the independence of the desert, and were always distinguished by the most ardent piety, the most austere morals, and the most undaunted resolution.

Their faults were as active and as stern as their virtues, and afford examples equally instructive. With an inconsistency incredible in any other being than man, they brought with them the spirit of persecution, before which they fled ; and their conduct towards Christian sects inferior in number to themselves, proves that their sufferings in Europe had not taught them moderation, but only given them ingenuity in inflicting suffering on others. As if it were lawful to imitate the crimes as well as the virtues of an enemy, they learned from the savage, even in the security of triumph, in the generous moment of success, to destroy the defenceless old men, and women, and children.*

* See the Narrative of the Indian wars, by William Hubbard, Minister of Ipswich.

Page 34. Having mentioned the easy conquest of Capt Stoughton's company over some hundreds of Indians, who were all taken without opposition, he adds, "The men among them, to the number of thirty, were turned presently into Charon's ferry-boat, under the command of Skipper Gallop, who dispatched them a little without the harbour. The females and children were disposed of according to the will of the conquerors, some being given to the Narrhagansetts and other Indians that assisted in the service."

Page 99 and 100. Observe the arguments, which removed all scruples as to the justness and necessity of war with the Narrhagansetts, with whom a treaty had lately been concluded, and in the subsequent pages the conduct of that war by the united forces of Massachusetts, Plymouth and Connecticut ; till the fort in which these Indians passed their winter, was in February stormed and taken, and the English having driven out their enemies, "and seeing their advantage, began to fire the Wigwams, where was supposed to be many of the enemies women and children destroyed, by the firing of at least five or six hundred of their smoky cells. It is reported by them, that first entered the Indian's fort, that our soldiers came upon them when they were ready to dress their dinner, but our sudden and unexpected assault put them beside that work, making their cook-rooms too hot for them

They did not hesitate to purchase, by the aid of treason, the blood which they could not shed in battle, to hide beneath a paltry quibble the premeditated violation of the most solemn treaties, to lure their enemy into their power by the promise of security, and then to secure him in the grave. It is wonderful with what unblushing gravity these enormities are related. But let us not condemn them too bitterly. Our children may perhaps discover among the honourable usages of this liberal and enlightened age, some as abhorrent from reason and humanity, as any with which we can re-

at that time, when they and their Mitchin fried together." p. 108. "It was confessed by one Pocock, afterwards taken at Rhode-Island and put to death at Boston, that the Indians lost 700 fighting men that day. The number of old men, women and children, that perished either by fire, or that were starved with hunger and cold, none could tell."

Page 184. Captain Church, the hero of the day, in pursuit of Tespiquin, one of King Phillip's Warriours, took a party of 50 Indians.

"Tespiquin's wife and children were there, but he was absent, as also one Jacob, and a girl that belonged to this company. The Captain's haste would not admit of his tarrying till they came in, wherefore he thought upon this project, to leave two old squaws upon the place, with victuals, and bid them tell Tespiquin, that he should be his captain over his Indians, if he was found so stout a man as they reported him to be. for the Indians had said, that Tespiquin could not be pierced by a bullet, for said they, he was shot twice, but the bullets glanced by him and could not hurt him. Thus the captain marched away with his booty, leaving this trap behind him to take the rest. The next morning he came to see what his trap had caught, there he found Jacob, a notorious wretch, and the girl he missed before, but not Tespiquin. But within a day or two after, the said Tespiquin, upon the hopes of being made a captain under Captain Church, came after some of the company, and submitted himself in the captain's absence and was sent to Plimouth; but upon trial (which was the condition on which his being promised a commission under Captain Church did depend,) he was found penetrable by the English guns, for he fell down at the first shot, and thereby received the just reward of his former wickedness."

But these researches are a disgusting task. Those who would be more fully informed, may read the work here quoted; and remember, that it is the painting of the man, if the lion had drawn the picture.

I have offered the only apology, that I know, for the cruelty of our ancestors. But another accusation, frequently urged against them, may be repelled with more confidence. They are said to have violated the rights of the Aborigines by settling on this Continent without their consent. If they seized land in the immediate occupation of the Indians, they did wrong; but the exclusive right of the savage to every forest, which he has traversed in pursuit of game, is certainly questionable.

proach our fathers. We should recollect also, that their prejudices taught them to regard the Indians as a sort of game, to decoy and kill, which was a fair trial of skill. Nor was this dreadful delusion peculiar to them; it was the misfortune of the age in which they lived. Even in modern times, Africa and Hindostan bear bloody testimony to the calculating coolness, with which the most enlightened nations invade the territories and infringe the natural rights of those who wear a different dress, and a different complexion from themselves.

These remarks are not intended to justify the conduct of our ancestors. They indeed were guilty—but who shall cast the first stone at them? Surely not we; not their children; who owe them so great a debt of gratitude for the Institutions which they established; the principles which they instilled, and the manners which they transmitted; for that respect to industry, however humbly occupied; and that scorn of indolence, however proudly pillowed, which have hurried us along so rapidly in the path of improvement, and contributed so much to enlighten and embellish society.

For the very superiority over them, which we boast, we are indebted, in a great measure, to their exertions; and this superiority should be considered as the motive and the means of still further improvement, should render us ambitious that our generation may advance with as steady and as rapid a progress as any of the past; and give as strong an impulse to that which succeeds it.

To gratify this generous ambition, it is necessary to be familiar with the annals of our country, to learn by what means this unexampled improvement has been effected, in what manner the same means may be applied to our own age, what changes in them are required by the difference of our situation, and how those changes may be produced; that the principles and institutions of our ancestors may be strengthened and extended, and the manners, which we inherit from them, deprived of their rudeness, without losing any thing of their purity. Its tendency to promote these objects, recommends our history to the attention of every citizen, and gives it the strongest claim on yours. For the influence of men of letters on the institutions, the customs, and the manners of their country, though less ostentatious, is not less powerful than that of the govern-

ment. By instructing the understanding and elevating the feelings, learning prevents the crimes, which the law punishes, it regulates the motives of our conduct, it purifies the sources of life, and controls those finer sensibilities of our nature, which are too subtle and too sacred to be touched by the rude hand of legislation; it is the guardian of the publick manners; and what are laws without them?

Nor is this all. Men of letters are also the guardians of the publick instruction. It is their care to promote the diffusion of knowledge, to extend the boundaries of science, and increase the treasures of literature.

Nay more, they are the founders of their country's fame, they only can render her illustrious by celebrating the achievements of her heroes; they display the encouragement, and distribute the rewards of merit.

Do you think that the jurist traces the principles of justice through the mazes of form and precedent, to settle the boundaries of a cornfield? that the soldier sheds his blood for his paltry pittance? that the sleepless anxiety of the satesman is compensated by the bows and the flattery of courtiers; or the midnight labours of the orator by the momentary plaudits of the crowd? No; they toil for immortality, and the hand of learning only can give them their reward.

In order to fulfil these obligations imposed on them by their country, men of letters must be perfectly acquainted with its history: and there is a previous duty, which demands this knowledge no less imperiously, the selection by each individual of the particular department of learning, to which his studies shall be directed. In making this selection, he ought to consider not only his own abilities and taste, but the situation and the wants of the society in which he lives. The neglect of this duty has occasioned all that waste of learned labour, that toilsome trifling, so much ridiculed and deplored.

It is impossible to recur to the history of our literature without remarking, that since the settlement of America, while the ancient states of Europe have produced generation after generation of illustrious writers, we cannot boast one worthy of immortality, though we acknowledge no deficiency in any other species of merit. Our fleets and armies have witnessed many a gallant deed. The popular assembly, the senate, and the hall of justice, have been

charmed by the eloquence, and enlightened by the wisdom of men, who deserve our admiration and gratitude. Our country has produced many, whose labours will improve the condition of posterity, but none whose writings will be models for its imitation; many, whose names are worthy of being recorded, but where are they who should record them?*

It is no idle speculation to investigate the causes of this deficiency, to ascertain from the history of our country, what obstacles have hitherto opposed its progress in literature, and to inquire by what means they may be evaded or surmounted hereafter.

A slight examination of some of these obstacles, will best illustrate the importance of this study to all men of letters, and may tend to brighten the hopes and strengthen the resolution of those who are just quitting the guidance of their literary parent, to become the directors of their own studies. Indeed, my friends, you need every encouragement to perseverance. Many of us have, like you, made literature the ornament of youth; but how few grasp it as the jewel of their lives; as their friend, their companion, their guide, their refuge, their consolation, and their hope. The thousand occupations, which, in our country, court the hand of enterprise, and promise earlier and richer rewards, have

* "Our poets and historians, our criticks and orators, the men of whom posterity are to stand in awe, and by whom to be instructed, are yet to appear among us. The men of letters, who are to direct our taste, mould our genius, and inspire our emulation, the men, in fact, whose writings are to be the depositories of our national greatness, have not yet shown themselves to the world."

Mr. Buckminster's Oration before the F. B. K. 1809.

In a note, Mr. Buckminster approves, without excepting them, the works of Minot, Beiknap, and Dr. Holmes. I regret that a man, whose approbation was an honour, did not add other names to those here enumerated; there are others worthy of this distinction.

The passage above cited, and some others in Mr. Buckminster's oration, have excited against him the reproach of being indifferent to the honour of his country. But the best of countries has its imperfections. And the criticism, which descends to particulars, pointing out each merit and each failing, and giving the reasons of its judgment, is a proof of attachment, not of indifference; its praise is more useful and more honourable than the unmeaning plaudits of that blind affection, which admires every thing without distinction; it knows not what nor why. He, who most readily discerns the defects of the picture, is generally most enthusiastick in admiring its beauties.

tempted them all away from the toilsome pursuit of science. For however tranquil, and easy, and indolent, the life of a scholar may appear, untried, it is indeed painful, and laborious, and discouraging; like the mountain, whose side at a distance, seems to form a regular and gentle acclivity, such as an active foot might easily ascend: but when we make the attempt, then come the woody mazes, the slippery path, the steep ascent, the sudden precipice, and above all, the hours of toil, which add nothing perceptible to our progress. And you, who tread the path of science, have also competitors to contend with, whose eagerness allows you no time for repose, to refresh you after the labour that is past, or invigorate you for the next,

“ For honour travels in a straight so narrow,
Where but one walks abreast.
And emulation hath a thousand sons,
That one by one pursue. If you give way,
Or hedge aside from the direct forthright,
Like to an entered tide, they all rush by,
And leave you hindmost.”

The difficulties and disgusts of learning are not indeed peculiar to our country, but their effects have been peculiarly unfortunate here, because they are not counteracted by still stronger motives. Among us it is so easy, and so common, to succeed in undertakings commenced even at a late period of life, that a new employment may always be entered on with a rational expectation of success; and this facility induces many to abandon the pursuit of learning at the first moment of weariness, impatience or disappointment. Men of letters in all other countries have the same obstacles before them; but in other countries, despair is planted behind: every avenue to distinction is so crowded, that after devoting the first years of manhood to one pursuit, it is too late to begin upon another. In other countries, therefore, these obstacles are only subjects of complaint, and incentives to exertion. The necessity of surmounting them supplies the means. The means, by which you may surmount them, must be sought in your own minds, in that resolute pride, which never shrinks from what it has once undertaken; or still better, in the steadiness of principle.

Thus the very prosperity of our country has strengthened the obstacles, which oppose the cultivation of letters.

Its political situation also, though often varying, has in all its changes, been unfavourable to the interests of science. On its first settlement, the immediate care of our ancestors was to obtain the means of comfortable subsistence. Before this could be effected, war with the Indian tribes began, and continued without an interval of security for nearly a century. Not like the wars of our age, contests between armies, and mere subjects of speculation to the rest of the community, to whom their progress is communicated only by celebrations of victory or apologies for defeat ; but war by surprise, war of extermination, war on the defenceless, in which peace itself was only a stratagem. During this period, every man was obliged to hang his arms at his fireside, every cottage was the scene of a skirmish, the tomahawk hung over every head, and blood was shed on every threshold. In such a state of society, it is no wonder that little time was devoted to the cultivation of letters. The din of arms stifles the voice of the muses, as well as that of the laws.

But as the population of the country increased, and the Indians were driven to a greater distance from our principal settlements, something like security was felt in our towns, and learning advanced almost as rapidly as the employments of commercial industry, or the arts of civilization, till the revolutionary war. During that war, whose history is too familiar to you all to need a comment, every thing was neglected, every thing was forgotten but the cause of liberty. After peace was concluded, the attention of the people was directed to another enterprise more difficult, more important, and more glorious even than the acquisition of independence. I mean the establishment of government.

On the adoption of the constitution, it was natural and right that all eyes should watch the result of this delicate and momentous experiment ; that the first struggles of established authority, with opposition, should excite a trembling interest in every friend of his country ; and particularly in those, whose genius had framed, whose eloquence had recommended, and whose authority had established this new form of government ; and thus rendered them responsible for its success. But it is not natural that their descendants should inherit their fears, that those who saw nothing of the difficulty of framing our constitution, but have witnessed only its success, should tremble for its safety in spite of experience, and think it the duty of every individual to devote

his life to the contrivance of new means for its support. Men establish governments not to find employment in administering them, but in order, that every citizen knowing the ability and the duty of the community to protect him, may pursue with confidence and security his own path to happiness ; and the government, which inspires this confidence, and affords this security, is one of the greatest of blessings. But, if the end must be sacrificed to the means, if the pursuit of happiness and excellence must be abandoned for ever to preserve a particular form of government, if our constitution is so frail, that every eye must be fixed in restless anxiety on the tottering fabrick, and every hand be always raised for its support, let it fall, it is not worth supporting. May we not hope better things of our political institutions, they have resisted adversity, and what is much more, they have survived twenty years of unexampled prosperity ; may we not then, now believe that they are well adapted to the character and situation of the people, and therefore calculated to endure ? may we not at length be persuaded that the foundations of the temple are deeply laid, its superstructure firmly established, and that it is now time to decorate it with the labours of the muses, and kindle the flame of science on its altar ?

This persuasion is already prevalent, the popular assembly is no longer considered the only theatre for talents, the noiseless labours of the scholar are respected. The political situation of our country now opposes no considerable obstructions to the progress of literature, though he, who is ambitious of immediate distinction, may still be tempted to enter a career, where applause is early and surely obtained by every one who deigns to court it.

Our language presents another obstacle to the celebrity of our writers. The excellence of modern authors is estimated by comparing their productions with other works written in the same language, most of their readers being masters of one language only. This comparison is just in Europe, where those who write in the same language generally reside in the same country, and possess the same advantages. But our language, our literature, our taste are English, and we determine the merit of our literary productions by comparing them with those of men, who enjoy better means and stronger motives for the cultivation of letters than America affords.

Their vast capital and wealthy institutions assemble crowds, whose lives are devoted to learning, and whose rivalries and friendships alike promote the interests of science.

Their libraries, containing the best works of every age and nation and on every subject, not only supply the student with the means of acquiring knowledge, but by informing him what others have written, prevent the useless labour of seeking what has long since been discovered, and explaining what is already known.

Their system of education is far more complete than ours. They are conducted by the most eminent of their predecessors, through a long and laborious course of study, till they have attained an equality with their masters, and have become acquainted with every discovery previously made in the department of science, to which their studies are directed, so that all the knowledge, afterwards acquired by their unassisted exertions, is an addition to the stock of human learning.

But how is it with us? I should blush to uncover the nakedness of my country, if it were not that her wants must be generally known and felt before they will be supplied.

Our libraries are small, and not always well selected, wanting many of those works, to whose excellence ages have born witness, and abounding with magazines and journals, too well adapted to the taste of many who frequent them, mere students of reviews, readers of extracts, who give only their praise to the wise and the great, while their time is devoted to triflers.*

We have excellent institutions for the instruction of youth, but none for the accomplishment of men. We are just led to the portal of the labyrinth of learning, and left to find our own way through its mazes; happy, if after many an error, our wanderings do not terminate in despair. I would not undervalue our seminaries of education. They are well

* It is not asserted that the funds of our *principal* Libraries are injudiciously applied. The chief source of our regret, is the insufficiency of their funds, in consequence of which, many of them owe a large portion of their contents to donations of books from individuals, a mode of forming a library, which precludes the possibility of systematical selection.

This sentence has no reference to the reading room of the Athenæum, an establishment of a different nature, and which increases instead of diminishing the funds appropriated to the Library.

calculated to diffuse a little learning through every class of the community, admirably adapted to the situation and wants of the people ; and we could not exchange them for those of any other country, without suffering by the experiment. But we must add to them establishments like those of Europe, before we can expect the glory of being a literary nation.

This must be the labour of more than one generation ; but every effort to improve our libraries, or to extend our literary institutions, is an important service to learning and to the publick.

But is it hence to be inferred, that our generation can serve the cause of letters only by improving the means of educating their posterity, by preparing the way to fame for others, without the hope of attaining it themselves. By no means. If you shrink from a competition with the scholars of Europe, there are still some departments of science, where no Transatlantick competitor can easily cross your path, such for instance is Natural History. To eminence, in this study, the patronage and the rewards of Europe are offered, the education requisite for its commencement, is easily acquired even in our country, and the means of pursuing it are in our hands, are all around us, are under our feet, “ and the dull swain treads on them daily with his clouted shoon.” They are all the productions of nature, every insect, every plant, every pebble. Living in a vast and fertile country, almost the only civilized portion of the earth, which has not been explored by the zeal of the Naturalist,* we possess advantages for the cultivation of this science, superiour to those of any other people. Yet even in this what have we done ? Nothing—comparatively nothing.

Scotland has given us an Ornithology, and for most of our knowledge of American Botany, we are indebted to natives of Sweden, France, and Germany.†

Since then we are as deficient in this branch of knowledge as in every other, notwithstanding the superiour advantages

* ————“ *sylvas saltusque sequamur,*
Intactos.”

† The publications of our countrymen on the Natural History of America, are not to be compared in magnitude or importance, with the works of Europeans on the same subject. But I seem to see a far brighter star rising in New-England.

“ *Credimus ! an qui amant ipsi sibi somnia fingunt ?*”

which we possess for acquiring it, *some* may conclude, that it is not the want of means, or motives, or education, which has prevented our progress in the other sciences. According to the true rule of philosophy, they may seek one simple cause commensurate with the effect, one which will account equally for our inferiority in every department of letters, and may think that they find it in the political situation of our country, which every day opposes fewer obstacles to the progress of learning, or in the temp'tation to pursue more lucrative occupations, which it requires only firmness to resist.

Animated by this belief, they may regard without discouragement the failure of the few efforts for literary eminence, hitherto made in America, and the superiour advantages possessed by the inhabitants of Europe, and may resolve to seek celebrity in those higher departments of literature, where illustrious men of all ages have laid the foundations of their fame; to consider as their rivals, the learned of other countries engaged in the same pursuits, and not only the living but the dead.

If there be any such among you, who are confident that all defects of education may be supplied by industry, who ask no means but the talents which God has given them, no motive but their hopes and their ambition, who considering every conflict as a prelude to victory, and anticipating in every obstacle a monument of success, delight to struggle with the strongest rivals, and to tread the steepest ascent to distinction, to you I would not breathe a whisper of discouragement. In such attempts it is glorious even to fail, and success will confer renown upon yourselves and blessings on mankind.

But there are few who can indulge such hopes as these; few in any nation of those "superiour spirits, who are born for something more and better than just to breathe the common air, and walk about this globe," and fulfil the obligations of private life, and be forgotten; whose prerogative and whose duty it is to raise some monument for the instruction of other generations, to enlighten their age and country, "and shed new lustre on the name of man."

But our duties should not be neglected, because they are of an humbler class. Though not many of us can hope to write their names on the annals of a nation, to be distinguished by the honours, which they receive from their country, or still more nobly by the services which they render

her; yet each may add at least, a nameless stone to the pyramid of her glory, may contribute something to the instruction of his fellow-citizens, and something to the stability of the government. The humblest among us has a little circle round him, whom his warning checks, his example guides, and his approbation animates, by enlightening whose understandings, and elevating whose sentiments, he may give material, if not illustrious support to institutions, which are founded solely on the principles and feelings of the people; for under such institutions, and among such a people, private virtue is the first of publick duties, and an honourable life the noblest service that we can render to our country.

BOOKS RELATING TO AMERICA.

Mr. Cooke's just and seasonable vindication; respecting some affairs transacted in the late General Assembly at Boston, 1720.

MR. COOKE was for several years a representative from Boston in the Legislature, and was chosen speaker. The Governour, Shute, having had some previous disagreement with Cooke, refused to acknowledge him as Speaker, and requested the House to choose another. They however adhered to their choice, and denied the Governour's right to put a negative on their choice; after sitting a few days, the Governour dissolved the House. This pamphlet is only interesting as it shews the resistance to arbitrary encroachment, and the jealous adherence to popular privileges, which always distinguished the people of Massachusetts.

The deplorable state of New-England, by reason of a covetous and treacherous Governour and pusillanimous Counsellors, with a vindication of the Honorable Mr. Higginson, Mr. Mason, and several other gentlemen, from the scandalous and wicked accusation of the votes ordered by them to be published in their Boston News-Letter. To which is added an account of the shameful miscarriage of the late expedition against Port Royal. London, printed 1708, re-printed 1721.

THIS pamphlet written with great warmth, lays open the disputes which existed between Governour Dudley and

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some leading characters, who opposed his designs. He appears to have been not very scrupulous in the means of increasing his fortune, and was desirous of getting rid of the Charter and making the government completely arbitrary. The colonies were frequently exposed to contests and evils from this source. Governours were sent out to make their fortunes, and cared but little for the rights of those they were sent to govern. Even in those early times, when the population was so much less, and there were few individuals who from wealth or talent were powerful in society ; these arbitrary magistrates met with great opposition in their designs. A sagacious mind looking to futurity would have easily anticipated that such a system could not last, and that the parent state must either prepare some new system for the future independent government of the country, or it would be done by the inhabitants themselves, as in due time came to pass.



A friendly debate : or a Dialogue between Academicus and Sawny and Mundungus two eminent Physicians, about some of their late performances.

Now since we live in such a fulsome age,
 When nonsense loads the press and choaks the stage ;
 When blockheads will claim wit in nature's spight,
 And ev'ry dunce that stares, presumes to write ;
 Exert yourself.———OTWAY.

Boston, in N. E. printed in the year 1722.

This is a violent and scurilous pamphlet occasioned by a medical quarrel. The origin of this was the introduction of inoculation for the small-pox, which was first practised in America by Dr. Boylston, who rendered an essential service in this way. Of the characters of the dialogue, *Academicus* was Dr. Boylston, *Mundungus*, Dr. Williams, and *Sawny* Dr. Douglass. The pamphlet was attributed to Dr. Boylston, who in this case cannot be accused of too much modesty, as it is dedicated to him with many compliments by *Academicus*. It affords another proof how common it is for physicians in their disputes with each other to pass the bounds of moderation and decency.

Gloria Britannorum ; or the British worthies, a poem. Being an essay on the characters of the most illustrious persons in the camp or cabinet, since the glorious revolution to this present time more particularly of the present ministry, under our most renowned Sovereign Lord King George. To which is added an ode on his Majesty's Coronation, and an elegy on the death of the late glorious Duke of Marlborough. By a lover of the present happy Constitution. Boston, printed by J. Franklin for N. Buttolph, and sold at his shop in Cornhill, 1723.

We have noticed this performance on account of the printer's name, and to inquire whether it may not have been written by Dr. Franklin. He was placed with his elder brother, at twelve years of age, and remained with him till seventeen. During this period he wrote many ballads and poetical pieces, but his father perceiving that he had no talent for poetry discouraged him from pursuing it. There is an allusion in the beginning to the youth of the author, and the whole poem contains nothing that would be worth claiming by Dr. Franklin, even as a boyish production. It begins thus :

" Sicilian Muse ! the rural strain forbear
Nor urge the verdant spring, nor blooming year,
Tho' Flora's charms have sweetly tun'd thy Lyre,
Yet now a nobler theme my verse does fire,
To sing of Heroes deeds.

Ye heavenly Nymphs assist me with your lays
To sing such heroes worthy of your praise ;
And you bright sons of Harvard where the Nine
And great Apollo consecrate their shrine,
For wisdom fam'd, the rude attempt excuse,
Accept an offering from an infant Muse,
That in adventurous numbers first would sing
The fam'd Nassau, the great, the warlike King."

Pietas in Patriam : The life of his Excellency Sir William Phips, Knt. Late Captain General, and Governour in Chief of the Province of the Massachusset-Bay, New-England. Containing the Memorable Changes Undergone, and Actions Performed by Him. Written by one intimately acquainted with Him.

Discite Virtutem ex Hoc, verumque, Laborem.

London, printed by S. Bridge, 1697.

This life of Sir W. Phips was written by Cotton Mather, and like many of his productions is full of learning, quaintness and credulity. Governour Phips was one of the remarkable characters of our early history. He was born February 2, 1650, "at a despicable plantation on the river Kennebeck;" his mother had twenty-six children, of whom twenty-one were boys. He very early discovered the energy and enterprise of a superiour mind, and to prepare himself for seeking his fortune on the sea, he bound himself to a ship-carpenter for four years, and afterwards constructed a vessel with which he went to Boston. The great cause of his prosperity in life, was his good fortune, finding the wreck of a Spanish plate ship that had been lost fifty years before on the coast of Hispaniola. The hope of recovering this treasure took strong possession of his mind, and he went to England to solicit assistance in the undertaking. After a variety of delays and disappointments he succeeded in fitting out a ship, and finding the wreck. He obtained from it about three hundred thousand pounds; very considerable sums were also obtained by others. Of this sum the projector to whom the whole merit of the enterprise was due, received only sixteen thousand pounds. He was knighted by King James, and success having made his merit conspicuous, several places were offered him in England, but the love of his native country made him decline them all. The King made him Governour of Massachusetts, and he returned with the new charter. His administration was an active one; in the course of it, the disgraceful transactions relating to witchcraft in Essex took place, and the progress of the delusion was stopped by

him ; it may be difficult now to decide whether it was in his power to have prevented this most odious business, from going such lengths. His expedition against Quebec, terminated unfortunately, and much blame was thrown upon him in consequence. The ill success of it however was owing to the expedition sailing from Boston too late in the season ; and the New-York government having failed in their co-operation, which enabled the Count de Frontenac to withdraw his troops from Montreal, just in time to save Quebec. The author begins his work in the following manner :

“ If such a Renowned Chymist, as *Quercetanus*, with a whole Tribe of *Labourers in the Fire*, since that Learned Man, find it no easie thing to make the common part of Mankind believe, That they can take a *Plant* in it's more vigorous Consistence, and after a due *Maceration*, *Fermentation* and *Separation*, extract the *Salt* of that *Plant*, which, as it were, in a *Chaos*, invisibly reserves the *Form* of the whole, with its vital Principle ; and, that keeping the *Salt* in a *Glass* Hermetically sealed, they can, by applying a *Soft Fire* to the *Glass*, make the *Vegetable* rise by little and little, out of its *Ashes*, to surprize the Spectators with a notable Illustration of that *Resurrection*, in the Faith whereof the *Jews* returning from the Graves of their Friends, pluck up the *Grass* from the Earth, using those Words of the Scripture thereupon, *Your Bones shall flourish like an Herb* : 'Tis likely, that all the Observations of such Writers, as the incomparable *Borellus*, will find it hard enough to produce our Belief, that the *Essential Salts* of *Animals*, may be so prepared and Preserved that an Ingenious man, may have the whole *Ark* of *Noah* in his own Study, and raise the fine *shape* of an *Animal* out of it's *Ashes*, at his pleasure : and, that by the like Method, from the *Essential Salts* of *Humane Dust*, a Philosopher may, without any *Criminal Necromancy*, call up the *shape* of any *Dead Ancestor* from the *Dust* whereinto his *Body* has bin Incinerated.”

Mr. Mather appears to have been much disconcerted at the obscurity of his hero's origin, and therefore introduces his account of it, by a mention of Eumenes, Marius, Iphicrates, Dioclesian, Bonosus, Cardinal Mazarin, and

Pizarro. When he mentions his having learnt the trade of ship-building, he says, "he became a master of the trade, that once in a vessel of more than forty thousand Tons, repaired the Ruines of the earth." A ludicrous specimen of style occurs in his relation of the miseries that were endured by the crew of one of the vessels that was wrecked on the island of Antecosti in returning from the expedition against Quebec; they were obliged to winter there, and after enduring the greatest hardships, a small number of them survived and were taken off. The small quantity of provisions they had saved were frequently robbed, and severe punishments were inflicted on the culprits; but there was one whose appetite placed them in the most imminent danger,—"There was a wicked Irishman among them, who had such a voracious Devil in him, that after divers burglaries upon the store-house, committed by him, at last he stole, and eat with such a Pamphagous fury as to cram himself with no less than eighteen biskets, at one stolen meal, and he was fain to have his belly strok'd and bath'd before the fire, lest it should otherwise have burst. This amazing and indeed murderous villainy of the Irishman, brought them all to their wits ends, how to defend themselves from the ruin therein threatened unto them; and whatever modes were proposed, it was feared, that there could be no stop given to his furacious exorbitancies, any way but one; he could not be past stealing, unless he were past eating too. Some think therefore that they might have sentenced the wretch to die, and after they had been at pains on christian and spiritual accounts to prepare him for it, have executed the sentence by shooting him to death; concluding matters come to that pass, that if they had not shot him he must have starved then unavoidably." What became of this unlucky Irishman does not clearly appear from the author's narrative.

The following extract is the first part of the 16th section, it is only a part of Dr. Mather's opinions on witchcraft. The deplorable scenes that had happened under the delusion, which the author had been very instrumental in exciting, were now ended, which he seems to have regretted, and was still anxious to justify the proceedings of those who believed in witchcraft. The absurdity of his reasoning can only be equalled by that of his belief. We shall observe upon the subject further under the next article.

“ About the time of our Blessed Lord’s coming to Reside on Earth, we read of so many *possessed with Devils*, that it is commonly thought the *Number* of such Miserable *Energumens* was then encreased above what has been usual in other Ages ; and the *Reason* of that Increase, has been made a Matter of some Enquiry. Now-though the *Devils* might herein design by *Preternatural Operations* to Blast the *Miracles* of our Lord Jesus Christ, which Point they Gained among the Blasphemous *Pharisees* ; and the *Devils* might herein also design a villanous *Imitation* of what was coming to pass in the *Incarnation* of our Lord Jesus Christ, wherein *God* came to *dwell in Flesh* ; yet I am not without suspicion that there may be something further in the Conjecture of the Learned *Bartholinus* hereupon, who says, It was *Quod judæi præter modum, Artibus Magicis dediti Dæmonem Advocaverint*, the *Jews*, by the frequent use of *Magical Tricks*, called in the *Devils* among them.

“ It is very certain, there were hardly any People in the World grown more fond of *Sorceries*, than that unhappy People : The *Talmuds* tell us of the little *Parchments* with the Words upon them, which were their common *Amulets*, and of the *Charms* which they mutter’d over *Wounds*, and the various *Enchantments* which they used against all sorts of Disasters whatsoever. It is affirmed in the *Talmuds*, that no less than Twenty four Scholars in one School, were killed by *Witchcraft* ; and that no less than *fourscore* Persons were hanged for *Witchcraft* by one Judge in one Day. The *Gloss* adds upon it, *That the Women of Israel had generally fallen to the Practice of Witchcrafts* ; and therefore it was required, That there should be still chosen into the Council, One skillful in the *Arts of Sorcerers*, and able thereby to discover who might be guilty of those *Black Arts* among such as were accused before them.

“ Now the Arrival of Sir *William Phips* to the Government of *New-England*, was at a Time, when a Governour would have had Occasion for all the Skill in *Sorcerie*, that was ever necessary to a *Jewish Councillor* ; A Time when Scores of poor people had newly fallen under, a prodigious *Possession of Devils*, which it was then generally thought had been by *Witchcrafts* introduced. It is to be confessed and Bewailed, That many Inhabitants of *New-England*, and Young people especially, had been Led away with Little

Sorceries, wherein they did Secretly those Things that were not Right against the Lord their God ; They would often cure Hurts with Spells, and practise detestable Conjurations with Sieves, and Keys, and Pease, and Nails and Horse-shoes, and other Implements, to Learn the Things, for which they had a forbidden and impious Curiosity. Wretched Books had stolu into the Land, wherein Fools were instructed, how to become able Fortune-Tellers : Among which, I wonder that a blacker Brand is not set upon that Fortune-telling Wheel, which that Sham-Scribler, that goes under the Letters of R. B. has proposed in his *Delights for the Ingenious*, as an honest and pleasant Recreation : And by these Books, the minds of many had been so poisoned, that they studied this *Finer Witchcraft* ; until, 'tis well, if some of them were not betray'd, into what is grosser, and more sensible and Capital. Although these *Diabolical Divinations* are more ordinarily committed perhaps all over the whole World, than they are in the Country of New-England, yet, That being a Country Devoted unto the Worship and Service of the Lord JĒ-SUS CHRIST above the Rest of the World. He signalized his Vengeance against these wickednesses, with such extraordinary Dispensations, as have not been often seen in others Places.

“ The Devils, which had been so play'd withal, and, it may be, by some few Criminals more Explicitely engaged and imployed, now broke in upon the Country, after as astonishing a manner, as was ever heard of. Some scores of People, first about Salem, the Centre and first Born, of all the Towns in the Colony, and afterwards in several other Places, were arrested with many *Præternatural Vexations* upon their Bodies, and a variety of cruel Torments, which were evidently inflicted from the *Dæmons* of the *Invisible World*. The People that were infected and infested with such *Dæmons*, in a few Days Time, arrived unto such a *Refining Alteration* upon their Eyes, that they could see their Tormentors ; they saw a Devil of a little Stature, and of a Tawny Colour, attended still with *Spectres*, that appeared in more Humane Circumstances.

“ These Tormentors, tendred unto the Afflicted, a Book, requiring them to Sign it, or to Touch it, at least, in token of their consenting to be Listed in the Service of the Devil ; which, they refusing to do, the Spectres under

the command of that *Blackman*, as they called him, would apply themselves to Torture them, with prodigious Molestations.

“The afflicted Wretches were horribly *Distorted* and *Convulsed*; they were *Pinched* Black and Blew; *Pins* would be run every where in their *Flesh*; they would be *scalded* until they had *Blisters* raised on them; and a thousand other things before Hundreds of Witnesses were done unto them, evidently *Præternatural*: For, if it were *Præternatural*, to keep a rigid *Fast*, for *Nine*, yea, for *Fifteen* Days together; or, if it were *Præternatural*, to have ones *Hands* *ty’d* close together, with a *Rope* to be plainly seen, and then by *unseen Hands* presently pull’d up a great way from the *Earth*, before a croud of *People*: Such *Præternatural* Things were endured by them.

“But of all the *Præternatural* Things which befel these *People*, there were none more *unaccountable* than those, wherein the præstigious *Dæmons* would ever now and then cover the most *Corporeal* Things in the *World*, with a *Fascinating Mist* of *Invisibility*. As now; a *Person* was cruelly assaulted by a *Spectre*, that, she said, run at her with a *Spindle*, though no *Body* else in the *Room* could see either the *Spectre* or the *Spindle*: At last, in her *Agonies*, giving a snatch at the *Spectre*, she pulled the *Spindle* away; and it was no sooner got into her *Hand*, but the other *Folks* then present, beheld that it was indeed a real, proper, *Iron Spindle*; which when they locked up very safe, it was nevertheless by the *Dæmons* taken away to do farther *Mischief*.

“Again; A *Person* was haunted by a most abusive *Spectre*, which came to her, she said, with a *Sheet* about her, though seen to none but her self. After she had undergone a deal of *Teaze*, from the *Annoyance* of the *Spectre*, she gave a violent *snatch* at the *Sheet* that was upon it; where-from she tore a *Corner*, which in her *Hand*, immediately was beheld by all that were present; a palpable *Corner* of a *Sheet*: And her *Father*, which was now holding of her, *catch’d*, that he might *keep*, what his *Daughter* had so strangely siezed; but the *Spectre* had like to have wrung his *Hand* off, by endeavouring to wrest it from him; However he still held it; and several times this odd *Accident* was renewed in the *Family*. There wanted not the *Oaths* of good credible *People*, to these particulars.

“Also, It is well known, that these wicked *Spectres* did proceed so far as to steal several Quantities of Money from divers People, part of which Individual Money, was dropt sometimes out of the Air, before sufficient *Spectators*, into the Hands of the Afflicted, while the *Spectres* were urging them to subscribe their *Covenant with Death*. Moreover, *Poisons* to the standers-by, wholly *Invisible*, were sometimes forced upon the Afflicted; which when they have with much Reluctancy swallowed, they have *swoln* presently, so that the common Medecines for *Poisons* have been found necessary to relieve them: Yea, sometimes the *Spectres* in the *struggles*, have so dropt the *Poisons*, that the Standers-by have smelt them, and view’d them, and beheld the *Pillows* of the miserable stained with them.

“Yet more, the miserable have complained bitterly of *burning Rags* run into their forceably distended *Mouths*, and though no body could see any such *Clothes*, or, indeed any *Fires* in the Chambers, yet presently the *scalds* were seen plainly, by every Body, on the *Mouths* of the Complainers, and not only the *Smell*, but the *Smoke* of the *Burning*, sensibly fill’d the Chambers.

“Once more; the miserable exclaimed extreamly of *Branding Irons* heating at the Fire on the *Hearth*, to mark them; now though the standers-by could see no *Irons*, yet they could see distinctly the Print of them in the *Ashes*, and *smell* them too as they were carried by the *not-seen Furies*, unto the Poor Creatures for whom they were intended; and those Poor Creatures were thereupon so *stigmatized* with them, that they will bear the *Marks* of them to their *Dying Day*. Nor are these the *Tenth Part* of the *Prodigies* that fell out among the Inhabitants of *New-England*.

“Flashy People may *Burlesque* these Things, but when Hundreds of the most sober People in a Country, where they have as much *Mother-Wit* certainly, as the rest of Mankind, know them to be *True*, nothing but the absurd and froward Spirit of *Sadducism* can Question them. I have not yet mentioned so much as one Thing that will not be justified, if it be required, by the *Oaths* of more considerate Persons than any that can ridicule these odd *Phænomena*.

“ But the worst part of this astonishing *Tragedy* is yet behind ; wherein Sir *William Phips*, at last, being dropt, as it were from the *Machin of Heaven*, was an Instrument of easing the Distresses of the Land, now so darkened by the *Wrath of the Lord of Hosts*. There were very worthy Men upon the spot, where the assault from *Hell* was first made, who apprehended themselves call'd from the *God of Heaven*, to sift the business unto the bottom of it ; and, indeed, the continual *Impressions*, which the outcries and the havocks of the afflicted People that lived nigh unto them, caused on their Minds, gave no little Edge to this Apprehension.

“ The Persons were Men eminent for *Wisdom* and *Virtue*, and they went about their enquiry into the matter as driven unto it, by a *Conscience* of Duty to God and the World. They did in the first Place, take it for granted, that there are *Witches*, or, wicked Children of Men, who upon *Covenanting* with, and *Commissioning* of *Evil Spirits*, are attended by their Ministry to accomplish the Things desired of them : To satisfie them in which perswasion, they had not only the *Assertions* of the *Holy Scripture* ; *Assertions*, which the *Witch-Advocates* cannot evade without shifts, too foolish for any *Prudent*, or too profane for any *Honest Man*, to use ; and they had not only the well-attested *Relations* of the gravest Authors from *Bodin* to *Bovet*, and from *Binsfield* to *Bromhal* and *Baxter*, to deny all which, would be as reasonable as to turn the *Chronicles* of all Nations into *Romances*, of *Don Quixot*, and the *seven Champions* ; but they had also an *Ocular Demonstration* in one, who a little before had been executed for *Witchcraft*, when *Joseph Dudley Esquire* was the Chief Judge. There was one whose *Magical Images* were found, and who confessing her *Deeds*, (when a Jury of Doctors returned her, *Compos Mentis*) actually shewed the whole Court, by what *Ceremonies* used unto them, she directed her *Familiar Spirits*, how and where to Cruciate the Objects of her Malice ; and the Experiments being made over and over again, before the whole Court, the *Effect* followed exactly, in the Hurts done to People at a distance from her. The Existence of such *Witches*, was now taken for granted by those good Men, wherein so far the generality of reasonable Men, have thought, they

ran well ; and they soon received the *confessions* of some *accused* Persons to confirm them in it ; but then, they took one thing more for granted, wherein 'tis now as generally thought they *went out of the Way*. The Afflicted People vehemently accused several Persons in several Places, that the *Spectres* which afflicted them, did exactly resemble *Them* ; until the importunity of the Accusations did provoke the Magistrates to examine them. When many of the *accused* came upon their Examination, it was found, that the *Dæmons*, then a thousand ways abusing of the poor afflicted People, had with a marvellous exactness *represented* them ; yea it was found that many of the *accused*, but casting their Eye on the *afflicted*, the *afflicted*, though their Faces were never so much another way, would fall down and lye in a sort of a swoon, wherein they would continue, whatever Hands were laid upon them, until the Hands of the *accused* came to touch them, and *then* they would revive immediately : And it was found, that various kinds of *natural Actions* done by many of the *accused* in or to their own Bodies, of *Leaning, Bending, Turning Awry, or Squeezing* their Hands or the like, were presently attended with the like things *præternaturally* done upon the Bodies of the *Afflicted*, though they were so far asunder that the *Afflicted* could not at all observe the *Accused*.

“ It was also found that the Flesh of the Afflicted was often *Bitten*, at such a rate, that not only the *Print of Teeth* would be left on their *Flesh*, but the very *Slaver* of Spittle too : And there would appear just such a *set of Teeth*, as was in the *Accused*, even such as might be clearly distinguished from other Peoples. And usually the *Afflicted* went through a terrible deal of seeming Difficulties from the tormenting *Spectres*, and must be long waited on, before they could get a Breathing Space from their *Torments*, to give in their *Testimonies*. ”

More wonders of the invisible world, or the wonders of the invisible world displayed in five parts. Part 1. An account of the sufferings of Margaret Rule, written by the Rev. C. M. Part 2nd. Several letters to

the author, &c. and his reply relating to witchcraft. Part 3d. The differences between the inhabitants of Salem village, and Mr. Parris their minister, in New-England. Part 4th. Letters of a gentleman uninterested, endeavouring to prove the received opinions about witchcraft to be orthodox, with short essays to their answers. Part 5. A short historical account of matters of fact in that affair. To which is added a postscript relating to a book entitled, the life of Sir William Phips, collected by Robert Calef, merchant of Boston in New-England. London, printed for Nath. Hiller, at the Princes Arms, 1700 4to. pp. 156.

Mr. Calef, the author of this work, deserves great praise for having manfully withstood a delusion, which was so strong, had such powerful patrons, and was so fatal in its consequences, that most persons were afraid to appear in opposition. In his discussion with Cotton Mather, he is as superiour to him in reasoning, as he was in good sense and courage. The work contains all the particulars of the monstrous proceedings in the cases of the witches; fanaticism and fear were both united in the cause, and it is not therefore wonderful, that the cruelty could only be equalled by the absurdity of these transactions. It is impossible to read the account of them without indignation; and if justice had been done, Mr. Parris, one of the clergymen of Salem, and some of the accusers, and we are not certain but Mr. Mather, who did more than any other person to excite, and after the proceedings were arrested by the government, to renew, these horrible persecutions, would have been executed for having procured the death of so many innocent individuals. We shall only extract two or three sentences from Dr. Mather's account of Margaret Rule, to shew what was the character of the accusers, for Dr. Mather's own account, will be sufficient to give an idea of his protégé; and no comment is necessary to fix opinion about a man, who laboured with all his might, to make use of wretches like her, to destroy the lives of the innocent. His learning was very considerable, but his folly and his credulity were unlimited. "There was one in the north part of Boston, seized by the evil angels many months after the general storm of the late Inchant-

ments was over, and when the country had long lain pretty quiet, both as to molestations and accusations from the invisible world. Her name was Margaret Rule, a young woman, she was born of sober and honest parents, yet living, but what her own character was before her visitation, I can speak with the less confidence of exactness, because I observe, that wherever the Devils have been let loose, to worry any poor creature among us, a great part of the neighbourhood presently set themselves to inquire, and relate all the little vanities of their childhood, with such unequal exaggerations, as to make them appear greater sinners than any whom the Pilate of Hell has not yet preyed upon. But it is affirmed that for about half a year before her visitation, she was observably improved in the hopeful symptoms of a new creature ; she was become furiously concerned for the everlasting salvation of her soul, and careful to avoid the snares of evil company." At the time the government interfered and stopt the prosecutions, twenty persons had been executed, eight more condemned ; about fifty had confessed themselves to be witches, above an hundred and fifty were in prison, and two hundred more accused.

This country was not the only one that was disgraced by trials and executions for witchcraft. In Sweden, England, and France, similar enormities had taken place a few years before. We may perhaps flatter ourselves that similar crimes cannot be perpetrated again ; because the upper classes of society are too enlightened to countenance such atrocious absurdities. There is, however, a great fund of superstition remaining among the ignorant on which knavery and fanaticism may always draw with confidence. In this country and every other, there are still sybils and magicians who are consulted by the vulgar. There is less of this in the United States than in perhaps any other country ; there is more than one individual in London and Paris, who obtain a living by telling their fortunes to the credulous, and those who consult them, particularly in the latter city, are not always of the lowest rank. The disgraceful imposture in England, of that poor, lunatick, Joanna Southcote, which lasted so long and terminated last year by her death ; is a proof that society owe their security from evils of this nature, to the more enlightened state

of governments in our times. Had there been any interference, either by the ecclesiastical authority, or by the police, as many rash persons desired; the blasphemous and ridiculous absurdities of that woman might have taken deep root, and occasioned lasting mischief. Her followers consisted of tens, some said hundreds of thousands; among them were some clergymen, and many persons of property; all these would have cried out, if government had interfered, and the impostor herself would have been canonized in the belief of her stupid votaries. The extent of the delusion, in times like these, when information is so widely spread, may moderate our censures of our ancestors, who were placed under circumstances so widely different.

In Mr. Calef's observations on the Rev. Dr. Mather's life of Sir W. Phips, there are some interesting particulars of the manner in which the new charter was obtained from the King, the old one having been resumed by a *quo warranto*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

Sir,

The uncommon weather which we have experienced since May last, and the late appearances in the sun having excited an unusual degree of attention to meteorological observations, the following paper may probably be interesting to a considerable portion of your readers.

There might be some hesitation in repeating the narrative of such singular and unexplained phenomena, were it not for the respectable source from which the information is derived. M. Acharius is a gentleman of scientific eminence, whose name and reputation are well known, and his communication has a place in the collections of a respectable literary society, of which he is a member. The translation of his paper, which has been obligingly presented to me by Mr. Hauff, is transmitted to you for publication, if you should consider it an acceptable contribution to your valuable miscellany. Some of your readers, perhaps, may be induced to compare the account given by M. Acharius, with

analogous facts recorded or observed, and it would be gratifying to receive any satisfactory views, which may occur in explanation of the asserted phenomena. A. X.

Boston, Sept. 12, 1816.



ACCOUNT OF AN EXTRAORDINARY METEORIC PHENOMENON; BY
E. ACHARIUS.

[From the Transactions of the Swedish Academy of Sciences, for 1808, page 215.
Translated by Mr. J. C. Hauff.]

HAVING received intelligence from several persons, although differently and variously related, of an extraordinary and probably hitherto unseen Phenomenon, which was observed in the air last month, at and about the village of Biskopsberga, near the Town of Skeninge, which accounts not being testified to me by eye-witnesses, nor agreeing as to facts and circumstances, I resolved to proceed to the place myself for obtaining an exact and detailed account thereof; and as I find so many singular circumstances attending this Meteor, which deserve to be known, I have thought it my duty to communicate them to the Royal Academy, and thereby to save so remarkable an occurrence from oblivion, which, although difficult to explain, still affords an additional proof of those many wonderful operations of Nature, which take place in our Atmosphere.

On the 16th of last May, being a very warm day, and during a gale of wind from south-west, and a cloudless sky, at about 4 o'clock, P. M. the sun became dim, and lost his brightness to that degree, that he could be looked at without inconvenience to the naked eye, being of a dark-red, or almost brick colour, without brilliancy. At the same time there appeared at the western horizon, from where the wind blew, to arise gradually, and in quick succession, a great number of balls, or spherical bodies, to the naked eye of a size of the crown of a hat, and of a dark brown colour. The nearer these bodies, which occupied a considerable though irregular breadth of the visible heaven, approached towards the sun, the darker they appeared, and in the vicinity of the sun, became entirely black. At this elevation their course seemed to lessen, and a great many of them remained, as it were, stationary; but they soon resumed their former, and an accelerated motion, and passed in the same

direction with great velocity and almost horizontally. During this course some disappeared, others fell down, but the most part of them continued their progress almost in a straight line, till they were lost sight of at the eastern horizon. The phenomenon lasted uninterruptedly, upwards of two hours, during which time millions of similar bodies continually rose in the west, one after the other irregularly, and continued their career exactly in the same manner. No report, noise, nor any whistling or buzzing in the air was perceived. As these balls slackened their course on passing by the sun, several were linked together, three, six, or eight of them in a line, joined like chain-shot by a thin and straight bar; but on continuing again a more rapid course, they separated, and each having a tail after it, apparently of three or four fathoms length, wider at its base where it adhered to the ball, and gradually decreasing, till it terminated in a fine point. During the course, these tails which had the same black colour as the balls, disappeared by degrees.

It fortunately happened, that some of these balls fell at a short distance, or but a few feet from Mr. Secretary K. G. Wettermark, who had then for a long while been attentively looking at the phenomenon, in the aforesaid village. On the descent of these bodies, the black colour seemed gradually to disappear the nearer they approached the earth, and they vanished almost entirely till within a few fathoms distance from the ground, when they again were visible with several changing colours, and in this particular exactly resembling those air-bubbles, which children use to produce from soapsuds by means of a reed. When the spot, where such a ball had fallen, was immediately after examined, nothing was to be seen, but a scarcely perceptible film or pellicle, as thin and fine as a cobweb, which was still changing colours, but soon entirely dried up and vanished. As somewhat singular, it may be observed, that the size of these balls, to the sight, underwent no particular change; for they appeared of the same dimension, at their rise from the western horizon, as well as on their passing by the sun, and during the whole of their course to the eastern part of the heavens, where they disappeared.

Such have been the real circumstances attending this phenomenon, to which all the people in the village can testify. I have drawn up this report from the accounts of none

but eye witnesses, and have compared them one with the other ; and I cannot doubt the truth of the incidents, having been related to me in a manner agreeing in particulars and details. The labourers of Peter Manson, a farmer, being at work in the field, were the first who observed the phenomenon, and as it continued so long, all the people in the village were gradually observing it ; it therefore could not be an illusion, possibly affecting one or other individual.

I leave it to the genius of more skilful and able men, to unfold the causes of this occurrence ; but as an hypothesis may be hazarded, without being censured, it may be supposed, that perhaps a strong gust of wind, (*coup de vent*) from some mountainous or woody tracts, or regions at a distance, had loosened, collected and carried along with it, some probably vegetable substances of a jelly-like nature, which, in passing through the air, having incorporated some additional matter by a chemical union therewith, formed themselves into thin globular masses, or by the effect of the air and wind, were formed into bubbles, which became perceptible to the eye by the sun's light. But, why did the sun lose his brightness ? and how could this innumerable quantity of such a soapy and jellied substance, be generated or produced in one place ?

July 15th, 1808.

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN JOURNAL.

SIR,

You have already noticed Taylor's Sermons lately republished here, but I request you to print the enclosed extract, from the sermon preached at the funeral of the Lord Primate. I have read these sermons with such delight, that I think the attention of the publick should be called towards them, till these admirable efforts of genius and piety are universally known.

To the Editor.

“ Presently it came to pass, that men were no longer ashamed of the cross, but it was worn upon breasts, printed in the air, drawn upon foreheads, carried upon banners, put upon crowns imperial ; presently it came to pass, that the

religion of the despised Jesus did infinitely prevail ; a religion that taught men to be meek and humble, apt to receive injuries, but unapt to do any ; a religion that gave countenance to the poor and pitiful, in a time when riches were adored, and ambition and pleasure had possessed the heart of all mankind ; a religion that would change the face of things, and the hearts of men, and break vile habits into gentleness and counsel ; that such a religion, in such a time, by the sermons and conduct of fishermen, men of mean breeding and illiberal arts, should so speedily triumph over the philosophy of the world, and the arguments of the subtle, and the sermons of the eloquent, the power of princes and the interests of states, the inclinations of nature and the blindness of zeal, the force of custom and the solicitation of passions, the pleasures of sin and the busy arts of the devil ; that is, against wit and power, superstition and wilfulness, fame and money, nature and empire, which are all the causes in this world that can make a thing impossible ; this, *this* is to be ascribed to the power of God, and is the great demonstration of the resurrection of Jesus. Every thing was an argument for it, and improved it ; no objection could hinder it, no enemies destroy it ; whatsoever was for them, it made the religion to increase ; whatsoever was against them, made it to increase ; sun-shine and storms, fair weather or foul, it was all one as to the event of things : for they were instruments in the hands of God, who could make what himself should choose to be the product of any cause ; so that if the Christians had peace, they went abroad and brought in converts ; if they had no peace, but persecution, the converts came in to them. In prosperity they allured and enticed the world by the beauty of holiness ; in affliction and trouble they amazed all men with the splendour of their innocence, and the glories of their patience ; and quickly it was that the world became disciple to the glorious *Nazarene*, and men could no longer doubt of the resurrection of Jesus, when it became so demonstrated by the certainty of them that saw it, and the courage of them that died for it, and the multitude of them that believed it ; who by their sermons and their actions, by their publick offices and discourses, by festivals and eucharists, by arguments of experience and sense, by reason and religion, by persuading rational men, and establishing believing Chris-

tians, by their living in the obedience of Jesus, and dying for the testimony of Jesus, have greatly advanced his kingdom, and his power, and his glory, into which he entered after his resurrection from the dead. For he is the first fruits; and if we hope to rise through him, we must confess that himself is first risen from the dead."

Kennebeck River.

Sir,

The enclosed contains the dates when the Kennebeck River was closed by ice, during the last thirty years, with a few deficiencies. I send this document as being valuable to those who are interested in our climate. It will be seen that on the average, the river is shut by ice about four months in the year. These dates lead to the presumption, that the ice makes its appearance a few days later in the winter, although it continues as late in the spring as formerly. It is rash, however, to judge of any alteration of climate, except in considering the dates of a very long series. The melioration which has taken place in some countries of Europe in the course of two thousand years, may perhaps also happen here from the same causes, a destruction of the forests and a more extensive cultivation. These notes were made at Gardiner; the river remains closed two or three days longer above that place, and is open towards the mouth some days sooner.

To the Editor.

	<i>Opening.</i>	<i>Closing.</i>		<i>Opening.</i>	<i>Closing.</i>
1785	April 24		1801	Mar. 29	Dec. 10
86	Mar. 21	Nov. 18	2	April 9	do. 16
87	April 7		3	Mar. 22	Nov. 16
88			4	April 12	do. 19
89	April 4	Jan. 5, 1790.	5	do. 2	
90	do. 18	Nov. 26	6	Mar. 15	
91	do. 3	Dec. 10	7		Dec. 18
92	Mar. 29	Nov. 4	8	Mar. 29	do. 6
93	April 1		9	April 17	Nov. 13
94	do. 6		10	do. 9	Dec. 9
95			11	Mar. 24	do. 14
96		Nov. 28	12	April 18	do. 10
97	do. 4	do. 22	13		do. 13
98	do. 12	do. 23	14	April 6	do. 4
99	do. 13	do. 24	15	do. 18	do. 2
1800	do. 10	do. 28	16	do. 20	

(We should be much obliged to any gentleman, who would send us a similar account of the ice in the Merrimack, Connecticut, Hudson, or Delaware, they will form interesting memoranda.)

FOR THE NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

Letter from H. Oldenburg, Secretary of the Royal Society, to the Hon. John Winthrop Governour of Connecticut.

“London, April 11, 1791. 6

“SIR,

“Your letter of October 11, 1670, to me, and your present to the Royal Society, together with that to Sir R. Moray, I have well received from the hands of Mr. Fairweather, who deserveth to be commended for his care of the particulars you had entrusted him with. I soon delivered to the said society their parcell, viz. the shell-fish (called Horse-foot) the Humming-bird's nest with the two eggs in it, being yet whole, the feathered fly, and the shells, bullets and clays taken out of the overturned hill: for all which, that noble company returns you their hearty thanks, and very much desires the continuance of such curious communications, for the enlargement of their repository, and consequently of the intended history of nature. These curiosities being viewed at one of our publick meetings, some of the company conceived that what you call the sharp tail of the Horse-foot, is rather the forepart and nose of the fish; the same persons having also found that two of the knobbs on the shell, now dried up, had been the places of the eyes, and did still by the manner of their ductuss express, that they had looked towards the said nose, when the animal was alive. The Humming bird's nest was also shewed to his Majesty, who was as much pleased with it as the Society, and I doubt not but Sir Rob. Moray will tell you the same, and withal acknowledge the receipt of those silk pods that were directed to him.

“Concerning the overturned Hill, it is wished that a more certain and punctual relation might be procured of all the circumstances of that accident. It seems strange, that no earthquake was perceived, and yet that the Hill is said to have been carried over the tops of the Trees into the River, as also that people being near it should not certainly know the day when this happened. I doubt not, Sir, but your own curiosity will have carried you since you wrote this, to view the place, and to examine all the particulars remarkable in this matter. I hope my Lord Brereton, to whom

you communicated the story at length, will also write to you by this return, and join with me in the request of giving us a fuller account of this wonder.

"I cannot yet desist from recommending to you the composition of a good history of New-England, from the beginning of the English arrival there, to this very time; containing the Geography, Natural Productions and civil administration thereof, together with the notable progress of the plantation and the remarkable occurrences in the same; an undertaking worthy of Mr. Winthrop, and a member of the Royal Society!

"A herewith send you a few philosophical Books lately printed here, viz.

"1. Mr. Boyle's new tracts about the wonderful rarefaction and condensation of the air, &c.

"2. Monsieur Charas'* new experiments upon vipers.

"3. The transactions of 1670.

"To these I add a small discourse, originally written in French, against that great Sorbonist Mons. Arnaud, touching the perpetuity of the Romish faith about the Eucharist, and so wishing you much health and happiness,

I remain sir,

Your faithful servant,

HENRY OLDENBURG."

"Sir,

"When you send any thing more for the R. Society, or for me, I pray, add my dwelling place, (in the Pal-Mal) to the superscription. I must not forget to give you very many thanks for the Cranberries; they tasted of the cask, or else they would have been very good."

* Vid. Rees' Cyclop. Art. *Charas*. That account is silent as to the cause of his confinement in the Spanish Inquisition, which we learn from other sources, and it is not an uninteresting article in literary history. It was believed in Spain, when *Charas* was in that country, that Vipers within twenty leagues of Toledo were not venomous, it having pleased a holy Archbishop to deprive them of their poison. *Charas* cautioned the people in that vicinity not to trust to this persuasion. The physicians of the Court, who were hurt at his being invited to prescribe to the king, denounced him for his rash suggestions relative to the disvenomed vipers. The Spanish zealots were offended that he had disturbed a belief which they had found useful to maintain, and *Charas* was imprisoned for his temerity. After seventeen years confinement, he obtained his discharge, at the age of seventy-two, by adjuring the protestant religion which he had professed.—*Ency. Method Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

“P. S. I just now received Sir R. Moray’s letter, as you find it here unsealed. My Lord Brereton hath not yet sent his, and I dare stay no longer from doing up this packet, the master of the ship having appointed this morning for the delivering of it.

To his honoured friend, John
Winthrop, Governour of
Connecticut in N. England.”

MR. EDITOR,

Mr. Oldenburg’s letter, of which I have transmitted to you a copy, has been several years in my possession. It will be deposited in the Archives of the Massachusetts Historical Society. We may smile at the mistaken conjecture of the assembled naturalists relative to the “fore-part and nose” of the *Horse-foot*; but, it should be recollected, that this animal is not an inhabitant of the European coasts. It is found only in this country and in India. Perhaps, also, the observers were misled by the description of the animal given by *Clusius*, who made the same mistake. In his *Exotica*, published at Antwerp, in 1605, p. 128, that eminent naturalist gives a description and a representation of the *Cancer Moluccanus*, [*Monoculus Polyphemus*. Linn.] the shell of which he had seen at Leyden in 1603, and with which our *Horse-foot* very nearly corresponds. The manner in which the figure is placed would indicate that he considered the thorn-like process, with which the animal is furnished, to be the fore part; but his description more decidedly manifests his mistake. “Anterior porro testæ pars aculeum habebat—septem uncias longum, angustum et mucronatum.”

In regard to the *overturned hill*, though some curiosity was excited by Mr. Oldenburg’s letter, no intimation would be found in any of our publications, excepting, the following article in *Josselyn’s voyages to New-England*, which it was supposed had reference to the occurrence communicated by Mr. Winthrop, 1670, “at a place called *Kennebunck*, which is in the Province of Main, not far from the river-side, a piece of clay ground was thrown up by a mineral vapour (as was supposed) over the tops of high oaks that grew between it and the river, into the river, stopping the course thereof, and tearing a hole forty yards square, wherein were thousands of clay bullets, and pieces

of clay in shape like the barrel of a musket. The like accident fell out at Casco, one and twenty miles from it, to the eastward, much about the same time; and fish in some ponds in the country thrown up dead upon the banks, supposed likewise to be killed with mineral vapours." In Hubbard's History of New-England, recently published by the Massachusetts Historical Society, we find a confirmation of the account given by Josselyn. In the 75th chapter of his valuable work, the venerable author observes, "Divers reports have passed up and down the country, of several ominous accidents happening within the fore-mentioned time, [from 1666 to 1682] as of earthquakes in some places, and of several vollies of shot heard in the air in the year 1667, but, because many that lived not far off those places, where the said accidents were supposed to fall out, knew nothing thereof, no more notice shall here be taken of the same, than a bare hint of the report; but at a place called Kennebunk, at the north-east side of Wells, in the Province of Maine, not far from the river-side, a piece of clay ground was thrown up by a mineral vapour, (as is supposed) over the tops of high oaks that grew between it and the river. The said ground so thrown up, fell in the channel of the river, stopping the course thereof, and tearing an hole forty yards square in the place whence it was thrown, in which were found thousands of round pellets of clay, like musket bullets. All the whole town of Wells are witnesses of the truth of this relation; and many others have seen sundry of these clay pellets, which the inhabitants have shewn to their neighbours of other towns. This accident fell out in the year 1670."

From the literal coincidence of expression between these two writers, in a considerable portion of these paragraphs, we must suppose that Hubbard had seen Josselyn's book, which was published in 1674; though he does not refer to him. It is evident however, that he writes from his own conviction, and he confidently vouches the inhabitants of Wells, for the truth of his narrative. He omits to notice a like incident at Casco, which is asserted by Josselyn. Josselyn was in this country in 1670, and resided at Black-point, (Scarborough,) but a few miles from the Kennebunk. This evidence would authorize us to conclude, with every reasonable allowance for probable exaggerations, that some violent disruption or mutation at

that time took place on the banks of the Kennebunk, though no tradition of the occurrence should have been preserved.

Both Hubbard and Josselyn suggest the operation of "*a mineral vapour*" to account for the phenomenon which they relate, corresponding with one of the many hypotheses that have been proposed, in explanation of earthquakes. Josselyn, evidently imagined, that this influence was widely extended, and that the fish thrown up dead from some ponds in the country, which he does not name, were killed by like *mineral vapours*. In the same connexion he adds the following passage; "a wonderful number of herrings, cast up on shore at high water, in *Black point harbour*, in the province of Maine, so that they might have gone half way the leg in them for a mile together." In regard to a peculiar affection of certain ponds at that time, Hubbard has the following remark. "Others have confidently reported also, that they have seen the eruption of a pond of water far up into the woods, and many fish cast up upon the dry land adjoining, supposed to be done by the kindling of some mineral vapours, under those hollow channels, running far within the land under ground."—[History of N. England, 607.]

He afterwards [p. 648,] relates the following fact, "Some time in *June 1676*, it was observed, that at a great pond in Watertown, all the fish there (many cart loads as was thought) swam to the shore and died. It was conceived to be the effect of some minerall vapour, that at that time had made an irruption into the water."

In a letter from the Rev. John Eliot, to the Honourable Robert Boyle, dated, September 30, 1670, there is the following passage; "there hath been a rare work of God, this summer, in a great pond at Watertown, where all the fish died, and were not willing to die in the waters; but, as many as could, thrust themselves on shore, and there died; not less than twenty cart load, by estimation, lying dead, all at once, round about the pond. An eel was found alive in the sandy border of the pond, and being cast into the water, she wriggled out again, as fast as she could, and died on the shore. An inhabitant of the town, living by the pond, his cattle use daily to drink there, but ther, for three days together, they refused there to drink, but after three days they drank of the pond, as they were wont to do. When the fish began to come ashore, before they died, many were taken and eaten both by English and Indians with-

out any hurt, and the fish were very good.”—[Hist. Coll. III. 177.] Upon a comparison of these two accounts, it was conjectured that the same occurrence was intended by both these writers, and that in one of them there was an error in the date. Mr. Eliot’s date was believed to be correct, and it has been found, on examination, obligingly made by James Savage, Esq. Librarian of the Massachusetts Historical Society, that the manuscript copy of Hubbard’s History, in fact, corresponds with Mr. Eliot’s account, as to time, and that the insertion of 1676, in the printed copy, is a typographical error. “The MS. of Hubbard,” says Mr. Savage, “that is in our archives, has the year quite plain 1670, not 1676, although a printer might be not wholly without excuse, who should express the latter.”* This concurrent testimony in regard to the occurrence at Watertown, about the time when the phenomenon at Kennebunk is said to have happened, tends to confirm the additional circumstances which are mentioned by Josselyn alone. We are not able to determine from these accounts, whether the destruction of the fish, in ponds and on the sea-coast, were precisely contemporaneous with the displacement of the hill at Kennebunk. If that were the case, we might infer, that all the phenomena were produced by the action of some powerful and deleterious gas, though we might be unable, satisfactorily, to explain the manner of its production. It was not here intended, however, to attempt an explanation of the phenomena, which have been related, but to state the evidence which we have on the subject, as to the reality of their existence, and to trace the connexion, whatever it may have been, between the different appearances.

We do not find that Mr. Winthrop pursued the inquiry by personal resort to the spot, or otherwise, as recommended

* The printing of Hubbard’s History, the publication of which had been so long desired, was under the superintendence of a committee of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and the community is much indebted to them for their assiduity and care, in the execution of their commission. The printers, also, are to be commended, for the neatness and accuracy of the impression. The general correctness of the edition is unquestionable, though from the condition of the manuscript and the antiquated chirography, there were many difficulties to encounter. The error, which it became necessary to notice in this place, arose from the connexion of the cypher with the stem of a letter in the preceding line.

by Mr. Oldenburg. He died at Boston, April 5, 1676. His multiplied engagements, in civil and political life, might have prevented any further attention to the subject, or he might have prosecuted inquiries of which the traces are lost. It was specially desirable to see his letter to Lord Brereton to which Mr. Oldenburg refers, and it was gratifying to find it preserved in Birch's History of the Royal Society. A mere extract, or summary of this letter would, probably, not be satisfactory to many of your readers; it is therefore presented entire.

Boston, Oct. 11, 1670.

"MY LORD,

"The relation which I am now presenting to your Lordship, is of a very strange and prodigious wonder, this last summer, in this part of the world; that the like hath not been known for the whole manner of it, I do not remember that I have read or heard. There was a hill near Kennebunk river, in the province of Maine, the eastern part of New-England, which is removed out of its place, and the bottom turned upwards. The time is not certain when it was done, but that it is so is very certain, and it is concluded by those who live nearest to it, that it was removed either the latter end of June, or the beginning of July last. The relation, I have from creditable persons respecting it, is this, viz. that the hill being almost eight rods from Kennebunk river side, on the west side of the river, about four miles from the sea, was removed from its place, over the dry land, about eight rods or perches, and over the tops of the trees also, between the hill and the river, leaping, as it were, over them into the river, where it was placed, the upper part being downward, and dammed up the river, till the water did work itself a passage through it. The length of the hill was two hundred and fifty feet, the breadth almost eighty, and the depth of it almost twenty feet. The situation of the place, as to the length of it, was N. W. to S. E. The earth of it is a blue clay, without stones; many round bullets were within it, which seem to be of the same clay hardened. I have not seen the place myself, but sent purposely to inquire into the truth of what had been reported concerning it. I had this relation from Major William Phillips, who dwelleth not far from the place, and Mr. Harlekendon Symons, who went to the place and took very good notice, and brought me the same report of the truth and

manner of it, which I had before received by a letter from Major Phillips, in answer to my letter of inquiry, and told that the earth of the hill did not lie between the former place of the hill and the river, which seems to be, as it were, blown up by such force, as carried the whole body of it so far together. I had from them some few of those round bullets, which were found upon that now upper part, which before was the lower or inner bowels of the hill, as also a small shell or two, of a kind of shell fish, like some shell fish commonly found where the sea flows, but how they should be within the hill is strange to consider. I have sent all that I had from thence, to the Royal Society, for their repository. I understand also from those parts, that there was no notice taken of an earthquake about that time, nor did I hear of any in any other parts of the country. I give your Lordship only a relation of this prodigy as I had it upon the best inquiry I could make, leaving the discussion of the natural causes which might concern a matter too hard for me to comprehend; but the power of his almighty arm is manifest to all, who weigheth the hills in a balance, and in whose presence the heavens drop, the hills are melted like wax; Sinai itself is moved.

“I hope to have an opportunity to see the place, and if any other matter considerable, upon my observations, or further inquiry shall appear, I shall be obliged to give your Lordship a further account thereof, and for the present, am bold only to subscribe myself,

Your right honourable Lordship's

humble servant,

JOHN WINTHROP.”

“*To the Lord Brereton.*”

It is proper to add, that inquiry has been made of intelligent individuals in Wells, by a gentleman who has recently journeyed to that part of the country, and that no tradition of such an occurrence, as is above described, is preserved in that region. One of the persons consulted, observed, that there had been four or five instances within his recollection, (one about thirty years since) when a large mass of earth containing several trees, slid into the river, and for a time formed a great obstruction, to the current. Similar landslips are not unfrequent in this and other countries. There was one a few years since on the Kennebeck, between Hallowell and Augusta, which is thus described by the friend who

made the inquiries at Wells. "A mass of earth with several trees on its surface was carried about sixteen rods; the force with which it went, bore down large trees which it passed over." "It was in this way probably" he adds, "on the Kennebunk in the occurrence which gave rise to Mr. Winthrop's letter. The people in the neighbourhood supposed it must have been *blown up*, though the trees might have righted after its passage. In the instance on the Kennebeck, the land was undermined by springs, and being on a declivity, slid off by its own weight from the hard clay beneath."

It is obvious, that in adopting this explanation, we must reject some particulars asserted in the narrative; but such a process often occurs in forming results upon evidence. Further inquiry may lead to the substitution of some other solution. In the mean time we may remark, that the apparently strange relations which we often meet with in history should not be too hastily rejected, as fabrications or illusions. A just interpretation often leads to satisfactory conclusions from statements which appear wild and extravagant. Our acquaintance with electricity, explains some of the marvellous phenomena asserted by Pliny, and what is known of the aurora borealis, and of the zodiacal light, informs us what we are to understand by the flaming spears and aerial armies, which were beheld and recorded by our terrified ancestors.

September 12.

D.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

There appeared in the newspapers some months since, a character of Buonaparte, drawn with energy and truth; most of the ideas and expressions of it will be found in the following lines, which are offered for the North-American Review.

BUONAPARTE.

THE drama sinks,—the tragick scene is o'er,—
And he who mov'd the springs is seen no more :
He, whose mad course was still to Virtue blind,—
Whose stage the world,—whose auditors mankind,—
Whose plot unfolding, fill'd the earth with tears
Now lost, disgrac'd, abandon'd, disappears.
When first, with eagle eye and vulture's rage,
He rush'd in strides of fury o'er the stage,
He rais'd the curtain with his dagger's blade,
And pour'd red carnage o'er the slumbering shade.
His dreadful part, terrifick, strange and new,
Nor Fancy follow'd, nor Experience drew,
It sprang inventive from a daring mind,
Where malice, nerve, and intellect combin'd.
Nurs'd by ambition, for a moment slept
In a stern heart where feeling never wept,
Thence bursting rapid, changeless in its aim,
Gave birth to deeds that language cannot name.
With battle clouds the shrinking sun he veil'd,
With wasting fires the startled night assail'd,
Mark'd on the ravag'd earth his dire pursuit,
By her torn blossoms, and her wither'd fruit ;
Without a signal, to the field he rush'd,
O'er friends enslav'd, and faithful allies crush'd :
High from the Alps, amid eternal snow,
He pour'd his legions on the vale below ;
In desolation's tone his armour rang,
War follow'd war, from conquest, conquest sprang ;
He fought in Scythia's caves, on Africk's sands,
Chas'd the wild Arab mid his roving bands,
Perch'd on the pyramids, in dizzy height,
Look'd down with scorn on Alexander's might ;

O'er Europe's realm like Attila he rush'd,
He snatch'd, divided, subjugated, crush'd,
Here, planted minions in his smile to reign,
There, captive monarchs groan'd beneath his chain.
The Roman pontiff trembled at his rod,
Which proudly prest the altar of his God,
While Albion's fleets, whose sides with lightning glow,
Were seen like Argus, watching for their foe,
And her white cliffs, in close array were lin'd,
With anxious soldiers on their arms reclin'd :
For, like the blasting Siroch's baleful breath,
His path was strew'd with misery and death.
As on the flashing meteor, bright and dread,
Each eye was fix'd, where'er his madness led :
And if his pride exulted in the fame,
What heart could wonder, or what voice could blame ?
Could mortal eye endure, with steady sight,
The dazzling pomp of such tremendous height ?
Who, that unhurt, and undismay'd had stood
Mid slaughter'd myriads in the fields of blood,
But would suppose his temper'd armour given
Like stern Achilles, from the forge of heaven ?
—Admiring awe beheld his glories tow'r,
And France forgot her chains to share his pow'r,
E'en the pale conscript left without a sigh,
Home, love, and liberty, for him to die.
Proud Genius, bending, strew'd her venal lays ;
The servile arts were listed in his praise,
While blood stain'd victory, in trophies bore,
The ravish'd spoils of rich Italia's shore.
—In that proud city, where his arching throne
On ruin rais'd, with sudden brilliance shone,
Time laid aside his scythe, to gaze with joy
And linger among charms he never could destroy.
—While the old world, to meet its offspring came,
Sages and chiefs who join'd the march of fame,
Claim with delighted eye and tone sublime,
A milder sentence on the tyrant's crime.
—But how can Europe grant the kind appeal ?
Reft of her sons, and wounded by his steel !
Where is a couch so dark, a cell so deep
That burning Moscow's memory there should sleep ?
What, can the scenes of purple Jaffa blot ?
And when shall Loda's slaughter be forgot ?
Who from a future age shall hide the view
Of Jena, Austerlitz, and Waterloo ?

Earth clad in sable, never can forego
The deepen'd trace, or man forget the wo.
Yet let him live, if life can yet be born
Disrob'd of glory, and deprest with scorn;
Yes, let him live! if he to life can bend
Without a follower, and without a friend:
If from the hand he hated, he can bear
To take the gift, his stain'd existence spare,
Who from his lonely island shall exclude
The fearful step of Conscience foul with blood?
What cuirass guard his breast with temper'd force
From the keen shaft of pitiless remorse?
Oh! in his awful cell of guilt and fear
Stretch the red map that marks his dire career,
Light the funereal torch, in ruin spread
His reeking hecatombs of mangled dead,
And if to hearts like his Contrition comes,
There let him seek her mid impending glooms;
There let him live, and to mankind display
The mighty miseries of ambition's sway;
There let him sink, to teach them by his fate
The awful horrors of the guilty great.
Great, in the stores of a malignant mind;
Great, in the deeds that desolate mankind;
Great, like the pestilence in sable shroud,
That darts its arrow from the midnight cloud;
Great, like the whirlwind in its wrecking path,
To sow in evil, and to reap in wrath.

The British parliament were occupied last year, in the investigation of various objects of interior police, particularly *mendicity*, in which many curious facts and enormous abuses were brought to light, in the management of *mad-houses*. The investigation of these, discovered scenes of cruelty which cannot be perused without horror. Bethlehem Hospital, in London, occupied a principal place in the examination, and furnishes a remarkable instance to what a frightful degree abuses may accumulate, even in the midst of a polished and humane people. The minutes of the evidence taken before a Committee of the House of Commons were published, and form a volume which cannot be read without shuddering. Reform has taken place; and a system of humanity in the treatment of these wretched

patients, and of skill in their cure, will be the consequence. Much of this change will be owing, to an establishment undertaken by the Quakers, near York, in England, which appears to be conducted with great humanity, skill, and success. An account of this Institution, called the "Retreat," has been published by Mr. Tuke, and contains a particular relation of the mode pursued in this hospital, and some very curious anecdotes. One of their rules is to afford occupation to the hands and thoughts of the patients. For this latter purpose, they are sometimes indulged with pens and paper. The following verses he gives as the production of one of the patients, who, he remarks, "at the time of its composition, laboured under a very considerable degree of active mania." The production is, under these circumstances, very remarkable.

ADDRESS TO MELANCHOLY.

Spirit of darkness ! from yon lonely shade
Where fade the virgin roses of the spring;
Spirit of darkness ! hear thy fav'rite maid,
To sorrow's harp, her wildest anthem sing.

Ah ! how has Love despoil'd my earliest bloom,
And flung my charms as to the wintry wind;
Ah ! how has Love hung o'er thy trophied tomb,
The spoil of Genius, and the wreck of mind.

High rides the moon the silent heavens along;
Thick fall the dews of midnight on the ground;
Soft steals the lover when the morning song,
Of waken'd warblers through the woods resound.

Then I with thee my solemn vigils keep,
And at thine altar take my lonely stand;
Again my lyre, unstrung, I sadly sweep,
While Love leads up the dance, with harp in hand.

High o'er the woodlands, Hope's gay meteors shone,
And thronging thousands bless'd the ardent ray:
I turn'd, but found Despair on his wild roam,
And with the Demon bent my hither-way.

Soft o'er the vales she blew her bugle horn,
Oh! where MARIA, whither dost thou stray?
Return thou false maid, to th' echoing sound.
I flew, nor heeded the sweet syren's lay.

Hail Melancholy! to yon lonely towers
I turn, and hail thy time-worn turrets mine,
Where flourish fair the nightshade's deadly flowers,
And dark and blue the wasting taper shine.

There, O my EDWIN! does thy spirit greet
In Fancy's maze thy lov'd and wandering maid;
Soft through the bower thy shade MARIA meets,
And leads thee onward through the myrtle glade.

O, come with me, I hear the song of eve,
Far sweeter, far, than the loud shout of morn;
List to the pantings of the whispering breeze,
Dwell on past woes, or sorrows yet unborn.

We have a tale; and song may charm these shades,
Which cannot rouse to life MARIA'S mind,
Where Sorrow's captives hail thy once lov'd maid,
To joy a stranger, and to grief resign'd.

EDWIN, farewell! go, take my last adieu;
Ah! could my bursting bosom tell thee more,
Here, parted here, from love, from life, and you,
I pour my song as on a foreign shore.

But stay, rash youth, the sun has climb'd on high,
The night is past, the shadows all are gone:
For lost MARIA, breathe the eternal sigh,
And waft thy sorrows to the gales of morn.



The vigorous intellect, and masculine character of mind, possessed by the late Honourable SAMUEL DEXTER, gave him the habit of deep meditation in a remarkable degree; that he joined to this a playful fancy, and the power of poetical composition is not so generally known. He wrote,

what are styled, occasional verses, with great delicacy and facility, though he seldom trifled in this way. The following juvenile performance, delivered while a junior sophister, at an exhibition in Cambridge, has been lent us by a friend, and is probably almost the only copy in existence. We have thought that it would be a gratification to many, to see so early a performance of this eminent man.

The Progress of Science. A poem, delivered at Harvard College, before a Committee of Overseers, April 21, 1780, by a Junior Sophister.

"Me verò primùm dulces ante omnia Musae,
Quarum sacra fero, ingenti percussus amore,
Accipiant.

Virgil's Georgics."

Let martial souls, whom wild ambition warms,
The trumpet's clangor, and rude din of arms,
Point out the path victorious heroes trod,
The pest of nations, and the scourge of God:
Mine be the task, in humbler verse to trace
The *real* greatness of the human race.

Tho' rude and savage Afric's sons we find,
Yet there first Science dawn'd upon mankind,
There curb'd the passions in perpetual strife,
And there begat the softer arts of life.
Blest by kind nature with a gen'rous soil,
That yielded herbage, tho' not dress'd with toil,
In philosophick ease they pass'd their years,
And watch'd the motions of the rolling Spheres.
Their modest wants plain Nature could redress,
And Science gave them rural happiness.
Egypt beheld her twilight's fainter ray,
And form'd fond hopes of her meridian day;
When, lo! tyrannick rage usurp'd the whole,
And cramp'd with fetters each high swelling soul.
Disorder'd fancy superstition bred;
She clap'd her wings, and thought her foe was dead;
Yet she but fled, to gain in happy Greece,
What Egypt had deny'd her, rural peace.
The Grecian souls, form'd of the subtlest kind,
In Freedom nurtur'd, strength'ned and refin'd,
Quick catch'd the flame; it ran from soul to soul,
And like electrick fire, inspir'd the whole.
Here Poets sang, and Rhetoricians plead,
Here Statesmen sat, and patriot Worthies bled.

Ah blindness to the future! headlong toss'd,
 They grasp'd the shadow, but the substance lost.
 Greece led her armies Troy's high walls to rase;
 The city shook and totter'd to its base,
 At length it fell——but from its ruins rose
 A vagrant band to subjugate their foes.
 Imperial Rome, the mistress of the world,
 Towns, cities, kingdoms into ruin hurl'd,
 And reign'd supreme alone. Greece felt her force,
 Nor stem'd the torrent in its rapid course;
 All victims fell to its resistless rage,
 The rough Barbarian, and the Grecian Sage.
 Ardent the Romans Grecian science view'd,
 Nor scorn'd to learn of those they had subdu'd;
 They reach'd the same sublimity of thought,
 And those, who learn'd, equal'd those, who taught.
 There godlike Homer rear'd his awful head,
 Here Virgil sang, and here great Tully plead.
 As when some mighty torrent, swol'n with rain,
 Falls rushing, dashing, 'till it meets the plain,
 O'er craggy rocks bends its resistless force,
 From cliff to cliff loud thund'ring in its course;
 So did the Athenian patriotick rave,
 And taught his country to be nobly brave.
 Not so the Roman. As the ancient Nile
 Glides smoothly on within its banks a while,
 Slow, gradual, rising, then o'erspreads the plain,
 And adds all Egypt to the swelling main;
 So syren Tully onward gently rolls,
 Enchants, enraptures, and subdues our souls.

Behold far north the gath'ring tempest rise,
 Rushing impetuous, as the whirlwind flies;
 Towns, cities, kingdoms from their basis fall,
 And one wide ruin overwhelms them all.
 Eternal Rome sinks to the common grave,
 Bursts, like a bubble dancing on the wave,
 Flies off in smoke, and rules the world no more—
 Oh! blush then, earthly grandeur! pageant power! :
 Age after age in one sad tenour ran,
 A blank—a chasm in the page of man.
 Men drudg'd their labour'd dulness to rehearse,
 To form an anagram, or egg in verse;
 They stifled genius with pedantick rules,
 And labour'd hard to prove that—they were fools.
 No mighty task, tho' labour'd in so long,
 Each line was proof, was demonstration strong;
 And men, O dulness to perfection brought!
 Blush'd to be guilty of a noble thought.

Yet in this gloom did Roger Bacon rise,
 Like lightning flashing thro' the clouded skies,
 He burst the barrier of pedantick rules,
 And all the labour'd jargon of the schools.
 As forked lightnings, with their hasty light,
 Serve but to shew the horrors of the night ;
 So he but shew'd the dulness of the age,
 A stain—a blot upon historick page.

As when cold Zembla, wrapt in darkest shade,
 First sees the Sun erect his radiant head,
 In gratitude to the benignant power,
 They gather round and Persian like adore ;
 He gives them light, not only light, but heat ;
 Warms with new life, and makes that life compleat :
 Th' expanding blossoms smile on every clod,
 And laughing vallies own the present God ;
 Loud hymns of praise the feather'd tribes employ,
 And savage beasts howl their tremendous joy ;
 A second Bacon thus divine appear'd,
 Took hoary dulness by his grisly beard,
 Shook the grim tyrant first, then headlong hurl'd,
 And reinstated Science in the world.
 Hence brilliant worthies our attention claim,
 Who grace the annals of Britannia's fame.
 While sun, or moon, or planetary spheres,
 Traverse the circle of revolving years ;
 While nature's laws exist, great Newton's name
 Shall stand the foremost on the list of fame.
 He saw creation in her mystick dance,
 By order govern'd, not by devious chance ;
 He trac'd the planets thro' their mazy road,
 Caught wand'ring comets in their dark abode,
 Explor'd great nature's universal chain,
 Hung earth self-ballanc'd in the vast inane,
 Unfolded the philosophy of light,
 Taught us why this is black, why that is white,
 Taught us why bodies are so prone to fall,
 What heaves old ocean, and unravell'd all
 This riddle of creation.—
 To reach his merit I can never hope,
 Then take his euge in the words of Pope.
 “ Superiour beings, when of late they saw
 A mortal man unfold all nature's law,
 Admir'd such wisdom in all earthly shape,
 And shew'd a Newton as we shew an ape.”
 Thee, tuneful Pope, with equal praise they show,
 Whose noble thoughts in strains harmonious flow.

Hail ! Shakspear, hail ! We feel thy force divine,
 Feel nature's pathos live in ev'ry line.
 Thro' distant climes shall Milton's fame be heard,
 Our modern Homer, and sublimest bard.
 In Metaphysicks too a Locke we find,
 Unfolding the recesses of the mind,
 Teaching mankind the great Creator's plan ;
 Yet less admire the author than the man.
 Great in himself, he could with pleasure leave
 The tinsel'd greatness that a Court can give,
 Refuse a place—a pension, and retire
 From glitt'ring pomp, to fan celestial fire.
 Nor Britain only can her worthies boast ;
 They rise in crowds throughout all Europe's coast.
 E'en this far western world can boast a few ;
 We've had a Franklin, and a Winthrop too.
 Ah ! Winthrop's dead—Then o'er his sacred hearse
 Pay the sad tribute of elegiack verse.
 Yet wherefore grieve ? To Winthrop now 'tis giv'n,
 Not to survey, but to inhabit heav'n.
 Eccentrick souls, great as himself, shall rise,
 Spring loose from earth, and emulate the skies.
 For see, in Europe Science reigns no more,
 Their souls are fetter'd with tyrannick power.
 Tiptoe she stands on Europe's utmost verge,
 With wing high-hovering o'er the foaming surge ;
 See her in air her form majestick raise,
 See placid ocean motionless to gaze.
 See clumsy whales in awkward measures play,
 And the mild radiance of her gladsome day
 Tremble upon the wide extended plain,
 And adoration universal reign.

Hail, beauteous Goddess ! here erect thy seat,
 Let infant Harvard be thy fam'd retreat.

All hail, ye worthies, who with gen'rous views
 Nurture this dwelling for the tuneful muse.
 When the Supreme in that tremendous day
 Shall from creation wipe this spot of clay ;
 When the dread mandate shall in heav'n be pass'd,
 And Nature in convulsions groan her last ;
 When liquid flames in molten columns rise,
 And the swift cherub thro' our system flies,
 Blows out yon taper in his mighty power,
 And swears that " time on earth shall be no more ;"
 Then shall a Hollis, then a Hancock rise,
 And spring with rapture to their native skies.

ORIGINAL.

HOR. CAR. ODE 24th, LIB. 1st.

TO VIRGIL.

WHAT solace for the drooping mind?—
 Ah! where shall grief a barrier find,
 For one belov'd so long?—
 Offspring of Jove—Melpomene divine,
 Come wean my plaintive song!—
 Pour on my soul the melting strain,
 And strike, in wild lament, thy harp's deep tone again!

Say, is that wakeless sleep Quintilius' now?—
 Does night eternal press that fallen brow?—
 A chaster spirit where shall virtue find—
 Fair Constancy and Truth with sister Justice join'd?

The many good mourn'd o'er the lonely dead;—
 But most the tears, which thou, my Virgil, shed;—
 Yet tears are vain,—the gods no suppliant heed,—
 Nor gave Quintilius' life from mortal weakness freed!

Though thou in sweeter strains could'st chime
 Thy magick lyre, in wildering swell,—
 Than Thracian Orpheus e'er could sound,
 Who charm'd the list'ning woods around.—
 Blood warms no more the parted soul,
 When sway'd by Fate in dark control,
 It mingles with that shadow'y band,
 Which flit in mazy dance 'neath Hermes' magick wand!

Tis hard,—but patience cheats the weariness of pain,
 And soothes our present wo—when other hope were vain?
Brunsvick. W—R.

SCHILL. *A pillar, in an open field near Stralsund, bore the following inscription in German. The popular attention was too strongly attracted to it, and it was shortly removed.*

WHO rests this nameless mound beneath,
 Thus rudely pil'd upon the heath?
 Naked to winds and waters sweep,
 Does here some gloomy outcast sleep!
 Yet many a footstep freshly round,
 Marks it as lov'd, as holiest ground.

Stranger! this mound is all the grave
 Of one who liv'd as live the brave,
 Nor ever heart's devoted tide
 More nobly pour'd than when he died!

Strange! no stone might dare to tell
His name who on this red spot fell!

These steps are steps of German men,
That, when the tyrant's in his den,
Come crouding round with midnight tread,
To vow their vengeance o'er the dead.
Dead! no, that spirit's bright'ning still,
Soldier! thou seest the grave of SCHILL!

EPIGRAMS

From the English Morning Chronicle.

ON THE PRESENT RAIN.

QUOTH Tom, what miserable weather!
The present rain does more,
To ruin farmers altogether,
Than ever rain before.

Alas good Tom! with narrow eyes,
This grivance you pursue,
The *present rain* what man denies,
Has ruined England too?

DIVINITY AND PHYSIC;—OR D. D. AND M. D.

How D. D. swaggers, M. D. rolls!
I dub them both a brace of noddies!
Old D. D. has the care of souls,
And M. D. has the care of bodies.

Between them both what treatment rare,
Our souls and bodies must endure;
One has the cure without the care,
And one the care without the cure.

On hearing the Regent accused of making distinctions in the invitations to his Fete.

No more, disloyal wretch, for shame!
No more your prince unjustly blame,
For splendid *Fetes* display;
The prince and people share their state,
To give them is the Prince's *Fete*,
The people's *fete* to pay.

THE
NORTH-AMERICAN REVIEW.

A Statistical view of the Commerce of the United States of America ; its connection with agriculture and manufactures, and an account of the publick debt, revenues, and expenditures of the United States. With a brief review of the trade, agriculture, and manufactures of the Colonies, previous to their Independence. Accompanied with tables illustrative of the principles and objects of the work. By Timothy Pitkin, a member of the House of Representatives of the United States, from the State of Connecticut. Hartford, printed by Charles Hosmer, pp. 427, 8vo.

THERE is little in the early periods of the existence of any nation, to reward research into its history. All the movements of society, in its first stages, are so entirely regulated by temporary and local considerations, its energies are necessarily so weak, and its spheres of action so circumscribed, that the causes of its progress are, for the most part, to be ascribed to the qualities, which distinguish particular individuals, rather than to those of a more general and permanent character. Men must advance far beyond the state of huntsmen and fishermen and shepherds, before the general results of their civil condition become objects of useful inquiry and analysis. After property begins to accumulate, and wealth to be concentrated in the hands, comparatively of a few ; after the course of a society is shaped less by the activity of particular individuals, than by the mass of intellectual, moral, and physical powers, which time and circumstances have placed under the control of its rulers, then it is important that facts relative to the civil condition of a people, should be known and be collected and generalized ; that this knowledge should be extended and that means should be afforded for the calculation of the force of the nation, and a general understanding diffused concerning the particulars, upon which its strength depends.

Truths of this kind are applicable to the people of the United States, as they have been to every other. Antecedent to our revolution, the Colonies had grown rich and great. This had been effected, however, almost wholly by the opportunity which the extent and unoccupied condition of the soil afforded to individual enterprise and exertion. Little, if any, of those riches and that greatness, is attributable to the arrangements of the society; still less to any general principle of policy, or economies, which any of the master spirits of the state had devised and put into operation, for the express purpose of improving its condition.

The effect of the revolution, was to create something like a general will by the universal impulse, which that event, in its course and completion communicated. Under the first confederation, attempts were made to give substance and efficiency to the exertions of the nation. These failing, and a general condition of the necessity of more vigour in the national government, being produced, prepared the way for the adoption of the federal constitution; under the auspices of which, we seem advancing, if we have not already attained to a state in which a knowledge of our civil condition will be something more than the gratification of mere curiosity. The internal proportions of power and of influence, which the component parts of the nation have a right to claim, and which they ought to vindicate, as well as the relative weight and importance of the whole nation, compared with those of cotemporaneous external states and empires, are only to be ascertained by a knowledge of the facts belonging to the condition of our society. These, therefore, are to be sought, and ought to be studied by all who aspire to regulate, or improve the state of the nation; and even by all who would judge rightly of their duties as citizens, and who are conscientiously scrupulous, even in private life, of so casting their influence into the scale of parties, as best to promote the general happiness and prosperity.

It may, however, be doubted, if the United States have yet arrived at that stage of national existence, in which a great degree of practical advantage can justly be expected from statistical knowledge, in whatever degree it may be minute, or accurate. And it is certain, that there are circumstances in the condition of our country, which will be

likely, for a long time, to put at fault all calculations founded on those common facts and data, from which the politicians of Europe reason and conclude concerning the fates of the nations of their own hemisphere. Among these, may be enumerated the unparalleled freedom of our Constitutions, which leaves so narrow a sphere for the operations of general regulations, and so wide an one for the caprice and talent of individuals; the unexampled influx of foreigners into our country, and the efflux of our own population into the new lands of the west; and, in general, the want of fixity of national character, the result of these and other causes, both moral and territorial. History, in the long course of its annals, presents no nation, which in the early periods of its existence can be compared to the United States, in the points of greatness, complexity, and number of its relations. In a current of affairs, such as that in which this country is involved, rapid, powerful, accumulated in the mass, and uncertain in the direction of its waters, it is scarcely possible for the mind to fix upon any data on which to rest as the ground of policy or just calculation. Before the work of reason is completed, all the foundations are changed; the land is gone from under us, and new points emerge to view, destined in their turn, also, to disappear and to deceive those who put confidence in their permanency.

Reflections of this kind, however just, ought not to make us neglect, or prize at a mean rate, a knowledge of such general facts, relative to our condition, as we are enabled, in so shifting a scene of things, to attain. All knowledge is desirable. And that which makes us acquainted with the general relations subsisting in our country had many claims of interest, and gives some promise of utility; notwithstanding, in this respect, it is necessarily less than what would result from similar labours, in a state of society more advanced and less fluctuating than that which at present exists in our country.

Political Arithmetick is an art daily growing more important in the United States. It may be hoped, that in proportion as men approximate towards certainty in their judgments concerning the facts which indicate the condition of the nation, parties will be likely to draw nearer to each other in their plans of policy; that principles, in their nature coherent and uniform, will be laid at the foundation

of every system of administration, and thus render them less liable to be shaken by the changes, or by any of those other alterations in the character of rulers, to which republics are so proverbially subject.

To aid in advancing towards the attainment of this certainty, the work of Mr. Pitkin is eminently calculated. The opportunities he has enjoyed for prosecuting this undertaking with success, have been great, and he is well qualified both by his talents and turn of mind for the purpose. The requisites for such a work, are industry, accuracy, fidelity, a discriminating intellect, and a love of research into the details of business ; not to be disgusted by what is dry, and not to be deterred by what is difficult. All these qualifications, besides others of a different, and, in vulgar estimation, of a higher, but, for a work of this nature, of a less essential character, it is manifest, from the evidence this volume contains, that Mr. Pitkin possesses, in a very distinguished degree. Our country has never yet produced a work, more indicative of extensive, accurate, and laborious research. It is a manual of political knowledge relative to our country, which every statesman and man of general science ought to have in his library ; on the subjects on which it treats, its authority is complete. Every thing it contains is practical information. Nothing is yielded to theory. Nothing is added for the sake of display. A book of tables and figures and arithmetical results may not meet, on its first entrance into the world, any noisy or vivid marks of general approbation. It will, however, work its way, not only into the closets of the curious, but to the desks of men of business, and secure for itself a well earned, because a laborious and useful fame, both with its cotemporaries, and with posterity.

Antecedent to the publication of this volume, there existed but one formal work on the subject of American statisticks. "*Economica, or a Statistical Manual for the United States,*" published in 1806, by Samuel Blodget, junior. This work contained some facts useful to be collected, and many calculations and reasonings, having a tendency to excite interest and attention to the subject. It was not, however, written in a style suited to acquire popularity, either for itself or its subject, nor published under circumstances of a nature to attract publick confidence. It was, therefore, oftener consulted than quoted, and more frequently used

than acknowledged. Blodget was neither precise in the objects of his research, nor distinct in his design, nor discriminating in the selection of topics appropriate for such work. Much that he inserts belongs to general history rather than to statisticks. A considerable portion of his volume is made up of chronological details. He republishes the constitution of the United States, and treats of the policy pursued by former legislatures of the Union, with an asperity of censure, and of that, which future ought to pursue in a style of authority, not calculated either to win favour or excite conviction. Blodget's mind was bold, ardent, original, and speculative. In the latter period of his life, when his book was published, he was an observer of the scenes which passed, rather than an actor in them. His book partakes of the character of a mind so constituted and so circumstanced. He has the merit, and it is no small one, of having been the first in this country to enter on this field of authorship. And although his work may be superceded by those of recent date, and by those framed under happier auspices, yet his merit ought not to be wholly passed in silence. Those who follow the track he first took, must inevitably derive some aid from his mistakes, as well as from his example. A passing recollection seems to be due to one who first undertook to explore, and first made a location in a part of science, which before, was in this country, little else than a wilderness.

The work of Mr. Pitkin was commenced and prosecuted under circumstances in every respect auspicious. A member of congress, engaged in the active debates of the time, realizing, from his situation, what was necessary to be known, and from his official station not only enabled to seek, but often to command information from the departments of State, in forms the most favourable to his pursuits, it is to be expected that his work should possess all the accuracy of detail and precision of object, that the relation in which he stood to the country, enabled him to attain. And there can be no doubt, that he has availed himself of the advantageous circumstances in which he was placed, with a zeal, an industry, and intelligence, as exemplary, as it is in relation to such a work for the purposes of confidence and utility, indispensable.

The branches of the art of political arithmetick includes the population, the wealth, and all the circumstances which

constitute the strength of a nation. These depend upon its general relations, and upon the particular turn which has been given to its industry and ingenuity. Those, who first engaged in the study of the principles of this art in Europe, proceeded, for the most part, on general reasonings, founded on very limited and often imaginary grounds; little better than guessing from a few scanty particulars at the general conclusions, after which they sought. Of late, however, in the principal states in Europe, and since the adoption of the federal constitution, in the United States, the publicity, which has been given to the laws and operations of government, and its acts being often expressly framed so as to enlarge information on such topics, a facility has been given to these researches, which leaves little to wish, at least, so far as relates to a knowledge of the extent of population, and to the results of the external commerce, and the relations of the publick revenue and debt. In this country, until within a very few years, manufactures have scarcely had an importance, sufficient to attract the attention of the politician. And agriculture, notwithstanding it is the predominating interest in the nation, has escaped, almost wholly both the patronage and the consideration of government.

There are two general points of view, by which it is natural that all statistical researches relative to this country should be regulated. The state of these relations, antecedent and subsequent to the declaration of independence. Antecedent to our revolution, nothing satisfactory is known of the state of our agriculture. And whatever has come down to us of the state of our manufactures, is loose, general, and uncertain. Some formal reports of the board of trade and plantations indeed exist, relative to the interference, with the right of supplying the colonies with manufactures, which the mother country claimed, and which it was apprehended, the spirit and direction of colonial industry jeopardised. But these reports were all necessarily imperfect. All classes of the people in the colonies were interested to conceal, as far as possible, from the scrutinising eye of British jealousy, both the number and extent of that rising interest. And the sleeping activity and "perpetual sitting vacation of the board of trade," were ill qualified to discover, at three thousand miles distance, the fallacies by

which interest anxiously concealed its greatness and prosperity. On many points, and relative to whole colonies, they confess their want of information. As to the rest, their reports contain nothing more than general statements and results, calculated to lull the apprehensions of their own capitalists, rather than to disclose the actual state of American industry.

Of the commercial state of the colonies, it would be natural to expect more precise and numerous documents. Yet even here, there is nothing to satisfy any great scrupulousness of research, and little to gratify even mere curiosity. Hutchinson, Franklin, Wynne, Sheffield, and some others, in general works, have made a few statements and inferences on the subject. The real condition of the commerce of the colonies, however, is not to be gathered from their accounts, or from any that exist, with satisfactory precision. The extent and the scattered nature of settlements on our sea-coasts, gave great facilities to evasions of the laws of revenue and trade. The general opinion also, which prevailed on this side of the Atlantick, concerning the innocency of those attempts to counteract the exercise by the parent state, of so doubtful a right, and so odious a power as those laws were considered, combined with the connivance, to say the least of custom-house officers, for the most part under the influence of similar sentiments and interests, rendered all the documents derived from that source in America, little more than the shadows of the reality. And as to the custom-house regulations in Great Britain, and the dependence which may be placed upon their statements on this subject, some idea may be formed, from what one of their most laborious historians * has said of Barbadoes, Virginia, and Maryland, which he stiles, "the best affected of the colonies." "Considering them" (the acts of navigation) "either as inconsistent with their privileges, or destructive of their infant commerce, they hesitated to obey, or eluded their provisions. And they trafficked without restraint, wherever hope of gain directed their navigators." From such, and other causes, the commerce of the colonies at all times, exceeded greatly what those documents indicated ;

* Chalmers' *Annals of the United Colonies*, v. 1. p. 313.

and to a degree, at this time probably, as little imagined as it is difficult to be ascertained.

The labours of Mr. Pitkin have greatly facilitated inquiries on this head. The best information derived from the books of the British custom-house, and from our early writers, relative to the state of commerce and population, during the colonial period, he has collected and arranged. Little more can be expected on this topick than he has attained.

Touching the colonial policy of Great Britain, it is not, perhaps, quite correct to say, as Mr. Pitkin does, that "the policy of Great Britain *has always been* to secure to herself the carriage of the produce of her colonies, to monopolise their raw materials, and to furnish the colonists with all the manufactures, or other imported articles they consume." During the first half century, after the earliest settlement, and until the time of Cromwell, "all the colonies* had been indulged in a free and open trade to and from all parts of the world, unless the privileges granted to the East India Company made an exception." The date of that policy is also somewhat antierior to the year 1660; the period Mr. Pitkin assigns to it. The act of navigation of that year was not the root of that policy. It was Cromwell and his republican coadjutors, who seem first to have had a true sense of the importance of the colonies; and framed, in 1652, the famous act of navigation, prohibiting the plantations from receiving or exporting any European commodities, except in English ships, navigated by Englishmen.† It is true that Chalmers, in his political annals of the United Colonies, (b. l. c. h. v.) attempts to wrest from Cromwell and the republican parliament, the praise of being the authors of that policy; maintaining that it originated with Charles the first, and citing the instructions given by that monarch to Berkley, on his being appointed, in 1639, governor of Virginia. But the principles inserted in a solitary commission, are scarcely to be dignified with the character given to them by Chalmers, as being "a prodigious change in colonial policy." Whatever were their motives, and

* See Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts, 1. v. p. 178.

† See Humes' History of England, 7. vol. p. 212; and Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts, 1. v. p. 178.

probably these were no higher, than to disgust and to pave the way for hostilities with the Dutch, it was to the long parliament, that Great Britain is indebted for the first regular plan and execution, of her late so much boasted colonial system. Their outline was filled up, and attempted to be perfected at the Restoration. Great inconveniences resulted to colonial commerce, from the attempt to carry it into effect, and its success was at no time complete.

With respect to the state of our commerce, subsequent to the American Revolution, and of that of agriculture and manufactures, so far as they are connected with it, the work before us contains every thing the statist has a right to expect, in the present situation of our country. The work also is the more valuable, and its author deserves the higher credit, inasmuch as it is almost wholly documentary. His study seems to have been to furnish facts and evidence, to serve as foundations of reasoning for others. He indulges in no theories. He no where dilates, for the sake of drawing out his work into a longer thread, than the texture of his subject requires. All is correct, precise, and to the degree which is attainable, satisfactory. It is difficult to find in any country, a work on such a topick, so purely and strictly elementary. And although on this account, it can hardly expect to have an extensive, popular, circulation ; yet we are mistaken indeed, if the author do not acquire for himself a higher and more desirable praise, that which follows laborious exertion, usefully and successfully applied to the elucidation of the most important concerns of a nation.

It may be expected that we should say something of the particular topicks on which the work touches, in order that our general readers may know what they may expect to find, should they have occasion to seek any of the information which it contains.

It treats then of our Exports, considered under the relations of the produce of the sea, of the forest, of agriculture, and of manufactures. Each branch of export is arranged and considered under distinct heads ; the value and quantity of each article is separately stated, so far as was practicable, at every annual period since the adoption of the federal constitution, accompanied by comparative views of the value and quantity of each product at different periods

The export of foreign produce, its quantity, value, and the effect, which at different periods was occasioned by our neutrality, and by the system of commercial restriction and war, is distinctly discussed.

Under the head of our Imports, the amount of that branch of our trade, its quantity and value, with the different parts of the world, particularly with Great Britain, France, China, and the East Indies, are stated ; the exports and imports in different years are compared, and the amount of articles imported and consumed, estimated from official data.

The history of our publick debt is also given, from its commencement to the beginning of the year 1815. The state of the United States' sinking funds, the amount and terms of recent loans united with a sketch, also from official documents, of the publick debt and sinking fund of Great Britain.

Our revenues also are traced in all their relations, whether of customs or internal taxes. All the valuations which have been made of lands and houses, under the provisions of the different direct taxes, are stated and compared. The amount, after proceeds of the publick lands, of the post-office, and generally the whole account of the receipts and expenditures of the Treasury of the United States, are abstracted, and presented in a form the most luminous and condensed.

To these are added statements of our tonnage, both that employed in foreign and domestick trade ; its gradual and relative increase, at the present and at former periods ; and compared with that of other nations. The whole illustrated by numerous and minute tables : all of authentick character, and most of them having the stamp of official authority.

On all these points, the work contains a completeness of information, highly important and satisfactory, and not less honourable to the laborious fidelity, and discriminating intelligence of the author, than it will be useful and creditable to the country.

Mr. Pitkin has well performed the task he undertook. It now remains for the publick to decide, whether this laborious exertion, in its service, shall meet with the patronage and encouragement, it so justly merits.

A Vocabulary, or collection of words and phrases which have been supposed to be peculiar to the United States of America, to which is prefixed an Essay on the present state of the English language in the United States. Originally published in the memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; and now republished with corrections and additions. By John Pickering. Atque, ut latine loquamur, videndum est, ut verba efferamus ea, quae nemo jure reprehendat. Cic. de Orat. Boston, published by Cummings and Hilliard. 8vo. pp. 206.

It must be granted in praise of learning in this part of our republick, that no inconsiderable efforts have been made to preserve the English language in its purity. In the journals which have preceded our Review, are interspersed occasional speculations in philology, which, as well for adjudging particular words and phrases, as for exciting the attention of scholars to verbal criticism, have had much influence in preserving what was pure in our style, and in recovering it from corruption. With great pleasure we acknowledge the more systematick labours of Mr. Pickering, in the same laudable undertaking. We are fully aware that the publick stands in need of literary guardians, and that it will not answer, in any province of learning, to trust entirely to individual self government. A wild luxuriance might indeed overspread our literary soil, if left to its natural fertility; but we ought to be able to discern between the innocent and the noxious: and if, when the hand of cultivation is applied, it be directed without skill, what is beautiful may be lamentably marred, and a rank growth of what is gaudy and disgusting, may be forced to a pernicious maturity.

Some of our friends, we believe, have been startled in consequence of too severe an interpretation of Mr. Pickering's remarks in his *Essay*, prefixed to his *Vocabulary*, and have been ready to apprehend, that they were intended, by the author, unreasonably to impoverish the English language. Speaking of the discipline to which it is necessary to submit, in order to acquire and preserve a pure English style, he says:

“It is related of Mr. Fox, that when speaking of his intended History, he said, he would ‘*admit no word into*

his book for which he had not the authority of Dryden.* This determination may perhaps seem, at first view, to have been dictated by too fastidious a taste, or an undue partiality for a favourite author; but unquestionably, a rule of this sort, adopted in the course of our education, and extended to a few of the best authors, would be the most effectual method of acquiring a good English style. And surely, if Fox found no necessity for any other words than Dryden had used, those writers have little excuse, who take the liberty, not only of using all the words they can find in the whole body of English authors, ancient and modern, but also of making new terms of their own at pleasure. Who shall have a right to complain of scarcity, where that distinguished orator found abundance? Such standard authors, therefore, should be made the *foundation of our English*; but as our language, like all others, is constantly though slowly changing, we should also, in order to perfect our style, as we advance to mature age, study those authors of our own time, who have made the older writers their models."

The style of Dryden is full and flowing, and embraces a great compass of expression; and if Fox were contented to get his vocabulary from Dryden alone, Mr. Pickering concludes, by an argument, *a fortiori*, as the logicians say, in favour of making a few standard authors the foundation of our English.

In Mr. Pickering's Essay several selections are made from the principal English Reviews, which contain indeed very salutary admonitions, but which, taken in their full extent, give an exaggerated picture of the deformity of our English style, on this side the Atlantick. That these censors on subjects of taste and learning, should overrate the amount of our departures from English idiom and expression, it is not surprising; for such departures, from their very novelty, even if they do not occur frequently, cannot fail to leave a strong impression, and are liable to create a prejudice so deep, that all the faultless diction, and the excellences of style in general, will not atone for such occasional transgression of the laws of *good usage*.

The principal object of Mr. Pickering's work is to collect the words and phrases which have been supposed to be

* Preface to his *History of James the Second*.

peculiar to the *United States*. Incidental to this, and in a manner embraced in it, is the collection of “antiquated words, which were brought to this country by our forefathers, nearly two centuries ago; (some of which were at that day provincial words, in England) and of words to which we have affixed a new signification.

In the course of the vocabulary, it appears from Mr. Pickering’s researches, and from the authorities cited, that a number of words which have been supposed to be peculiar to us, are not indebted for their origin to our invention. Among these is the verb *advocate*, in the sense of *support* or *defend*. But it is highly probable, that, while we are denied, by a late English Lexicographer, the honour of inventing it, we have been the means of raising it to notice, and of introducing it to the favour of Englishmen.

In regard to the words *legislate*, *mission*, (in its diplomatick sense) and perhaps a few others, we believe that all the credit of invention is in our favour. While, therefore, in common with all, who speak the same language, we may suffer for our presumption, when we use words unauthorized by custom; we have, on the other hand, a share in the chances of enriching the English vocabulary, by the use of words which may be found convenient, and which may be gradually introduced by good writers. Our right to make new words, Mr. Pickering says, he does not mean to deny. But we owe it to our reputation, if we would aspire to be ranked among good English scholars, to do it with caution. Vanity may sometimes lead us to imitate those who have acquired an influence, rather from their political rank in the community, than from their literary accomplishments; but it is to the tribunal of learning and taste, that all must ultimately submit.

When we find that words, which have been severely reprobated by those who appear to take the chief cognizance of letters, make their way into the productions of the best authors, we may be ready to think it well enough, that the language should be left to chance; and to imagine that no evil will arise, in this portion of the world, that will not operate its own cure. Innovations in language, in the *United States*, cannot be expected to extend their influence in any great degree, to England; and as far as the criticks of the latter country are conversant with our written productions, we shall not suffer for want of admonition and

censure, when we trespass against established rules. Still our pride is concerned in the knowledge and observance of those rules, and it must be mortified when we are detected in violating them.

Doctor Beattie, after having made a collection of *Scotticisms*, says in one of his letters, written in 1785, "I become every day more and more doubtful of the propriety of publishing it. Our language, (I mean the English) is degenerating very fast; and many phrases which I know to be Scottish idioms, have got into it of late years: so that many of my strictures are liable to be opposed by authorities, which the world accounts unexceptionable."—Possibly the Doctor might have been in an error respecting some of his supposed *Scotticisms*; while, on the other hand, much is to be allowed for the tendency of the writings of the Scotch and English to acquire a close resemblance, as there became a constantly increasing community of literary labours and productions. The solicitude of Doctor Beattie to write the English language with correctness and purity, is an example of the modesty of another learned Scotchman, besides that which Mr. Pickering cites of the celebrated Doctor Campbell. This solicitude is manifested more than once, in his letters to his literary friends. An instance that we now recollect, is where, besides various other apologies which he makes for his style, he adds, "even provincial improprieties, I know, I am not proof against, though few people have been more careful to keep clear of them." Whatever clemency, therefore, American writers may demand for their faults in the use of words, they cannot claim exemption from the necessity of diligent study of the English language, if they would avoid improprieties and barbarisms.

There is another view, which it becomes us to take of Mr. Pickering's Essay and Vocabulary. It might be supposed, and we believe some persons have too hastily taken up the opinion, that he means to proscribe all words of American origin. Our national prejudices no doubt would revolt against such an undistinguishing and arbitrary decree. But it appears already, from our examination, that he does not deny us the right of making new words. It is one of the principal excellencies of his work, that it enables us to see what words are peculiarly our own; and to find whether they are so much better than any others that could be em-

ployed, or rendered so necessary or convenient from local circumstances, that we choose to persevere in their use; or whether, on the contrary, they are so worthless, or of such doubtful utility, as to induce us to relinquish them, in favour of those which are authorized and established by custom. *Locate*, for example, may be a useful word to denote the surveying and fixing of the boundaries of unsettled lands; but to locate a *court*, to locate a *preacher*, and, what is still worse, to locate a *noise* and locate a *quotation*, meaning in these phrases to point out the place, are expressions that violate the rules of propriety and taste. Such barbarous terms as *Presidential* and *Congressional*, with some others, are equally unnecessary, and offensive to the ear.

It could not be expected that the author of the vocabulary should take upon himself the responsibility of a decision upon new words in all cases: he had discharged his duty, when he had given us the best means in his power for forming a judgment; and had thus afforded us the opportunity to adopt what is necessary or useful, however new, and to guard against needless or pernicious innovations, which many, perhaps unconsciously, had before been promoting.

Different writers and speakers, in this country, have indeed produced a considerable variety of words, that were before unknown; but it is gratifying, on the whole, to find that so small a number of them has been countenanced by our own criticks; and that we have thus been able to preserve to ourselves, in common with the nation from which we descended, the true benefits of the English language. Its identity is in fact as perfect as could be expected, under the circumstances in which we have been placed; and by the timely efforts of our best scholars, among whom Mr. Pickering is pre-eminently deserving of praise, we hope, so far from losing any thing more of our true English, to gain greater favour among the liberal criticks of our parent country.

Besides those words which are of native growth, we have many, particularly of a colloquial kind, which either are now, or were formerly, provincial in England. The laborious and successful endeavours of Mr. Pickering to collect these words, and trace them to their origin, must be highly gratifying to the curiosity of the philologist. Many of

these words, which are not to be found in our common dictionaries, we have been accustomed to hear, in different parts of our country, from infancy ; but we were not before aware, that they had so generally been brought hither by our fathers. A few other words, which made a part of the written language of former times, but are now obsolete in England, still seem to be tenacious of their rights. *Tarry*, is one of this class ; but we believe it is now seldom used in writing ; and, for the most part, the provincial and obsolete words of the English, have here preserved only a hereditary and oral descent.

The changes of meaning which words undergo, and departures from the true and common idioms, are among the perplexing mutabilities of language. So far as these subjects have fallen under Mr. Pickering's notice, we consider his vocabulary and remarks, of very great value. Violations of the genuine idiom, in a country separated from the parent stock, but professing to speak and write the same language, often escape with impunity. They are commonly the result of negligence ; sometimes however, of pardonable ignorance. Even where the language is most cultivated, all the vigilance of criticism is requisite to preserve its idiom pure. Affectation of novelty, or ambition for some distinctive peculiarities, is apt to betray a writer into faults of style, which go to fill up the measure of its corruption. Thus language, like every thing else, must submit to the fashion of the times ; and the idioms that were once legitimate and chaste, now become spurious and vulgar. The prediction of Addison, that the time would arrive when the style of his papers would be considered quaint, vulgar, or obsolete, has not to any great degree been fulfilled. It was founded in the experience of the past ; and fortunately the past was not, in this instance, a type of the future. Changes however, have taken place ; but there appears for the most part so much of permanency in the accustomed modes of expression, where the English language is cultivated, that our apprehensions for its safety are perhaps less, than the real danger.

For manifest changes, partly of the meaning of words, and partly of idiom, our readers are referred to—*arrive*, *clever*, *conduct*, *improve*, *likely*, *notify*, and *temper*, among many others to be found in Mr. Pickering's Vocabulary.

If any of those who consult this Vocabulary, conclude that the result is less portentous than the remarks in the Essay led them to apprehend, and that there is little to fear from seemingly trifling innovations in language, let them consider, that, as in almost every thing else, whether of a moral or literary nature, so in language, great effects are produced by slow and almost imperceptible degrees. Many professional gentlemen, and many scholars of respectable rank, will find various deviations from correct English noticed here, which had never before arrested their attention. They will of course be more vigilant in guarding against the same or similar abuses of language. Attention only is requisite to preserve in general the purity of our style; and afterwards, if we are sometimes involuntarily betrayed into faults and improprieties, they will not be such nor so frequent, as to bring upon us severe reprehension.

From these views of the subject before us, we are bound to acknowledge our gratitude to Mr. Pickering; and to welcome his appearance before the publick, in so good a cause, as an event highly auspicious, and one which bodes well to American learning. For the abundant authorities which he has produced under words of most importance, and for the accuracy with which the work is executed in every respect, he deserves great commendation.

This "collection of words and phrases," Mr. Pickering remarks, "I do not offer as a perfect list of our real or supposed peculiarities of language, but merely as the beginning of a work, which can be completed only by long and accurate observation, especially of intelligent Americans, who shall have an opportunity of residing in England, and of well-educated Englishmen, who may visit this country." The task is now in his hands; and before a future edition shall be demanded, we hope he will derive all the aid which can be acquired from the sources he mentions, and from those scholars among ourselves, who think the English language worthy of their study, and whose pride it is to find it written and spoken with propriety. The author is bound to make no apologies for not having accomplished more; he engaged in an undertaking almost new; and if his work do not contain every thing which its plan admits, it contains much that is extremely valuable. Variations from idiomatical purity, we should fear will be found to multiply, as Mr. Pickering extends his researches; and they form a

very interesting part of his work, as far as his inquiries have brought them into notice.

We cannot close these remarks upon Mr. Pickering's Vocabulary, without recommending it to the attentive examination of every American scholar.

A Statistical view of the District of Maine, more especially with reference to the value and importance of its interior, addressed to the consideration of the legislators of Massachusetts, by Moses Greenleaf Esq. Salus publica mea merces. Boston, 1816, Cummings and Hilliard, pp. 154.

THE MEMORIAL OF MARK LANGDON HILL AND OTHERS, TO THE LEGISLATURE OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1816.

An Act concerning the separation of the District of Maine from Massachusetts Proper, and forming the same into a separate and independent State, passed June 19th, 1816.

Politicks have been almost as much abused, by statesmen of modern times, as religion was, by the priests of the dark ages. There was a time, in that gloomy reign of ecclesiastical tyranny, when the sublunary concerns of mankind seemed to be managed, wholly for the benefit of the priesthood. If they desired the acquiescence, or cooperation of the laity, in the execution of any plan, which they had contrived, to enlarge their power, increase their wealth, or administer to their wordly pleasures, it was only necessary, for them strenuously to maintain, (which in such cases they never failed to do,) that the interest of the kingdom of heaven imperiously demanded it. Since the sceptre has been wrested from the hands of the ecclesiasticks, and wielded by laymen, we have to regret, that, in too many instances, statesmen, with no better intentions, have made use of the crafty policy of the monks, and availing themselves of the ignorance and credulity of the people, have succeeded in recommending measures, adapted solely to answer their selfish purposes, and most pernicious to the welfare of the state, by holding up to view some great publick benefit, which they undertake to assert will, in some way or other, (no matter how mysterious and inexplicable,) result from the adoption of them.

This species of imposture is the more practicable since, even by scholars and statesmen themselves, the science of government generally, and more especially, political economy, is still, quite imperfectly understood. First principles, here, are disputed almost as warmly, among politicians now, as they were in ethicks, formerly, among the ancient schoolmen. Wherein does virtue consist? was a famous question, with them, and, wherein does the welfare of the state consist? is a question, not much less agitated, with us. Some modern visionary politicians, have sought, with sanguine hopes of success, to discover certain, supposed, mysterious principles, which should operate, on the *moral*, as the wonder-working stone of the alchymists, was said to operate, on the *material* world. Others, less given to speculation, and believing the vices of old Adam, can never, by all the attempts of the moralist and statesman, be extirpated from his posterity, have been contented, to leave society, where they found it, and shape their policy exactly to the times, rather than endeavour, by any means to effect a reformation.

That subjects, with which the happiness of the human race is so deeply concerned, should remain, still enveloped in so much darkness, and give rise to so many different and conflicting theories, that every subtle, ambitious, dissembling statesman, can find one to suit his purposes, whatever they may be, may appear unaccountable to many, or perhaps, of *itself*, create a pretty strong belief, that there are some *insuperable* difficulties in the way, that will for ever, prevent us, in this case, from establishing any *general system*. Hence, (especially if an inquiry into the tendency of any measure, and an adherence to general principles, in testing the wisdom of any system of policy, is not likely to be *helpful to them*, or would seem to lead them from their darling object of pursuit,) they may take occasion to treat lightly, and ridicule, all abstract and speculative reasoning on these subjects.

A little inquiry, however, will convince every one (and it is indeed a consolation to know it) that the ignorance and doubt, which prevail, respecting political subjects, has not arisen, altogether, from the abstruse, and complicated nature of political science, nor from an impossibility of resolving it into general rules and principles, but, chiefly, from other causes, originating from the condition of the world,

in times past, and from the want of sufficient experience and observation, since the history of governments has afforded us much valuable instruction.

Until the inventions in the arts, and in improvements in the sciences, which followed the revival of letters in modern Europe, and essentially changed the face of civil society, by almost entirely altering the condition, the pursuits, and the sentiments, of the civilized world, the principal study of politicians was, to learn the natural operations of the human mind, and the best means of winning, and retaining the favour of the people, that they might preserve order and tranquility at home, in peace, and call forth the united energies of the nation in war. The accumulation of wealth was of little use, in that rude age when gold was made to yield to iron. Little information was sufficient, to provide for the wants and exigencies of the community, as men were not divided into so many classes, having distinct interests, as they are at the present day. Commerce, exchange, banking systems, finance, manufactures, required no attention of the statesman. Tactics were extremely simple, relations with foreign nations were maintained on no established principles, and all negotiations were conducted, in the plainest manner. Laws for the promotion of the arts and sciences, and the improvement of the morals of men, as well as for the relief of the indigent, and suffering part of the community, were never thought of, and in short, the comparatively simple state of society then, was unfavourable to the development of the principles of civil government, and rendered political economy almost wholly *useless*, and therefore caused it to be neglected and unknown. The philosophers and statesmen of those days, read thoroughly the book of life, and learnt almost to perfection the moral duties of man; but the narrow horizon, which bounded all their prospects, concealed from their view those causes, which *now* produce the greatest effects on society, and therefore, their reasonings, as well as the history of the age, in which they lived, and the petty political quarrels of the times, are of but very little consequence to the politician of the present day.

But even long after the renovation of literature, and the discoveries and improvements, in the arts and sciences, *another* cause, almost as fatal to the progress of political speculation, operated to keep the world in ignorance, on this

subject. Governments generally were established and kept up by force, or by fraud and imposition practised upon the people. They were *awed*, and not *reasoned*, into obedience. In conducting the affairs of the state, the sovereign usually consulted his self-interest, his pleasures, his imaginary glory, and fictitious greatness, or the wishes of a few busy courtiers around him, and executed his edicts with incontrovertible, and tyrannical authority. The welfare of the state, and the rights and liberties of the subject, could not, in such a state of things, be openly canvassed and discussed, and were scarcely ever regarded, except when the power, the threats, and the resistance of the people were feared, or their interests were found to be compatible with those of the sovereign. Times however are at length changed. The mysteries of government have been unveiled—the halo of assumed dignity and power, which surrounded the throne of the sovereign, and kept the subject at an awful distance, has vanished—rulers are no longer regarded, as the vicegerents of heaven, with authority to execute their own will and pleasure, on earth, but have dwindled down to mere servants of the people, accountable to them for their conduct—the blind reverence for ancient institutions, is abolished—and the principles of civil government, and the interest and welfare of the state, are debated and investigated, with considerable freedom, among almost every civilized people, who make the least pretensions to liberty. During the last fifty years, the public mind has undergone a very perceptible change, in every country, the people have begun to take a more important part, in the administration of the government; and, within that short space of time, Europe has furnished many able writers, who have thrown much light on the science of political economy. The darkness is rapidly rolling away, the morning twilight has already given us more correct, yet not very clear views of things, and we hope the bright day will soon arrive, when this science, so interesting to mankind, will be better understood, and that many of the evils and sufferings, that have afflicted the human race, will be thereby entirely removed, and the condition of society meliorated.

In our own country, it is our pride and boast, that we have succeeded in establishing in the several states, and over the whole people, constitutions of government, found-

ed on the broad basis of equal rights and rational liberty. We boast, that we have furnished an example for the people of other countries, who are just beginning to estimate these written compacts, between rulers and subjects, at their true value. Our vanity is flattered with the belief, that we have taught the world, an invaluable secret. We are inclined, however, to think, that our countrymen have been accustomed to attach a little *too much* importance to this circumstance ; have been wrongly persuaded, that our very valuable written constitutions are of more consequence than they will prove to be, and have been prematurely elated, with the groundless, but confident opinion, that the prosperity and happiness of society, is effectually secured by them, and must *necessarily* and *inevitably* result from a faithful observance of these written fundamental laws.

Such an idle expectation as this, may have had some tendency to countenance and encourage the notorious neglect of the science of political economy in this country. Now, however necessary written constitutions may be, to define the rights of the subject, and limit the authority of rulers, (and surely they are very useful in this respect,) yet, by these alone, the great objects of civil society are, by no means, accomplished. So very far from it, that the supposition is chimerical. The wealth, the power, the dignity, and the happiness of every government, essentially depend on the wise management of its domestick concerns, the increase of its resources, the wisdom of its municipal laws, the encouragement of the arts and sciences, the protection of the lives and property of the subjects, the diminution of their sufferings, and the multiplication of their means of enjoyment. All these things are entirely within the province of political economy, and the *best* government, conducted without regard to it, is but little better to the people than the *worst*. Without a due attention to the principles on which the welfare of the state depends, they are not only liable to be grossly deceived, by political impostors, but, even when rulers and their subjects have the best intentions, the want of knowledge may bring on them wretchedness and ruin. Indeed, a good constitution of government, without the exercise of a wise economy, in the administration of it, is to the society, who live under it, what a fine well finished mansion-house, without stores or furniture, is to the family, who dwell within it. Pope has been quite enough

abused for saying of governments, "that which is best *administered* is best;" for if the poet only intended to say, that the government is best, whose system of political economy is most adapted to the welfare of the community, then his idea, although rather oddly expressed, is strictly correct. But we will not quarrel with any one about his meaning, nor moot the point, whether the defects of a bad constitution may not be supplied, by a system of economy, of which such a government may admit, since it is quite enough for us in this country to know, (and it is highly necessary we should be deeply impressed with the conviction of it,) that the best constitution of government may be so badly administered, as to reduce the most flourishing country to misery and ruin. One would think, if governments, like individuals, are capable of learning wisdom from experience, we, as a nation, have had enough of that already to make us too wise to need any further instruction on this subject.

The little attention, that has been paid to statisticks and political economy, may perhaps be best accounted for, by considering the state of our newly settled country, and the infancy of our governments. A nation composed of wood-cutters and farmers, busily employed in felling the forest trees, breaking up the soil, and cultivating the lands of the wilderness, could have no *time* for such inquiries and speculations, no *means* of improving their condition much by them, and very little occasion to think of them. There were lands enough to occupy, that would furnish the necessaries of life to every one, who would till them; to gain a subsistence from his farm, was all that the husbandman could expect, or hope for; and every one was too busy to disturb the peace of society, and too isolated and too much occupied, to think of his neighbour, or of the commonwealth. But a very few years ago, this was the history of every part of our country. As it respected the federal government, our pursuits, our interests, our customs and manners were so much alike, and our feelings so congenial, in every state throughout the whole confederacy, that the machine of government moved on without much jarring, clashing, or interruption, that could alarm the citizens about its safety; and that was all they cared for. As it respected the governments of the several states, if every man enjoyed his liberty, and the peace of the community was kept,

(which was pretty universally the case,) all was well; they thought not of, nor cared for, any thing better, or beyond it. But the time is at length arrived when we ought to take a more extensive survey of things, and look more to the common weal. We are well supplied with the necessities, and have leisure and means to procure the conveniences and comforts of life.

The arts and sciences need encouragement; the publick taste may be improved; the manners of the people refined, and their morals amended; and publick improvements may be made to add to the comforts and increase the power and strength of the community; and for these and many other purposes, the financial concerns of the states must be husbanded, and their strength and resources multiplied. We should also recollect, that the evils growing out of an increasing difference in the character of the people of the several states must be anticipated and prevented, by making the manners, laws, customs and habits, of the people of each state to conform, as much as possible, to the genius of our federal government. We have too a national character to form, and the strength, resources and dignity of the federal government are to be increased and maintained. Here are objects enough to engage the attention of the statesman, and call forth all the powers of his mind; and all of them are to be accomplished only by a proper administration of the government of each of the several states, and a wise regulation of their internal and municipal concerns. Here we must look for the encouragement of literature and the arts and sciences—here talents are to be rewarded, and a spirit of patriotism enkindled—here the statesman is to be educated—here the temple of justice and the altar of religion are to be erected and defended—here the manners, habits and morals of the people must be corrected and improved—and here in fine, the national character must be formed and the welfare of the states and nation advanced. The strength, resources, dignity, and respectability of the federal government will essentially depend on a proper attention to these things, in the several states; and there alone too the welfare and happiness of each citizen can be promoted.

In making these remarks, we have perhaps kept the reader too long from the main subject of our inquiry; but it has been for the purpose of shewing the incalculable value of political science in general, and particularly political

economy, the prospect of arriving at a much greater perfection in it, since many obstacles have been removed ; and most of all, to impress on the minds of our countrymen the infinite importance of attending almost entirely and exclusively to the administration of the governments of the several states, under which they live, and the prudent regulations of their municipal concerns, and of seeking to increase their resources, strength, and respectability, and of guarding against the adoption of any measures, or system of policy, recommended by designing men for their own selfish ends, the tendency of which is not directly to accomplish those great objects, which we have enumerated.

We now come to the consideration of a subject, as interesting and momentous, as any which has presented itself to the politician for investigation and discussion, since the establishment of the government of this Commonwealth, namely, the late measures which have been taken by the Legislature preparatory for a separation of the District of Maine, and erecting it into an independent State, and the moral and political consequences, that will come from such a separation, if the people of the District of Maine decide by their votes in favour of it. Our speculations, it must be evident to our readers, are not now made, with any expectation, that they may influence the decision of the people of Maine ; for long before they will meet the publick eye, the question of separation will have been decided. But we wish to avail ourselves of the occasion, while the attention of the publick is directed to the subject, to do what we are able, towards diffusing just views, in regard to it. Besides, it does not yet appear to us altogether certain, that the people of the District will consent to the proposed separation, on the terms and conditions offered by the Legislature ; and, if the state is still to remain *entire*, it will be of greater consequence *in that event*, that all erroneous impressions should be removed, and our mutual interests known, and, by this means, a good understanding preserved, between Maine and Massachusetts proper. We cannot but believe, notwithstanding the attention of the state has been frequently, and for a great number of years, called to the situation of the District of Maine, and its interests ; and several times, even to the very subject before us, that yet the great body of the people, of both parts of the state, are really, at the present moment, very much in the dark on these subjects ; very ignorant of

the statisticks of the District of Maine, and of the mutual benefits and disadvantages flowing from our present connexion, or likely to result from its continuance. Perhaps we cannot better prepare our readers to form an opinion on these interesting questions, than by taking a cursory view of the little work of Mr. Greenleaf, which we are very glad to be able to recommend for their perusal. The principal object of the author, was to call the attention of the publick, and of the legislature, in particular, to the interior country, to do away incorrect notions respecting the value of that part of the state, and to shew that "by neglect or mismanagement, it may be depressed almost to a cypher; and by judicious and efficient measures in opening the way and directing the attention of settlers, it may be increased to a degree almost beyond calculation." In doing this, he has extended his inquiries to the situation, geographical and statistical, of Maine generally, and has given us a concise account of the population, wealth, resources, condition, and character of the District, "as a guide to estimate its future progress and importance," as perfect, in most respects, perhaps, as (considering the "deficiency of documents and records of facts," of which he complains,) we could at present have any reason to expect. We cannot, however, but regret, that in attending to his principal object, he has omitted to notice some subjects relative to the political economy and statisticks of the District, and has given but a very brief account of others, when the means of information were within his reach. Mr. Greenleaf informs us, that the subject, on which he writes, has been the object of his inquiries for many years past, and the publick are certainly, much indebted to him, for the pains he has taken to furnish information of facts so important, and yet so little known. We may place more confidence in these statements, which he makes, respecting the country, since they come from a man, who resides far in the interior country near the centre of the District, and not far from the wild lands, and whose pursuits, have led him to notice, and whose opportunities have allowed him to inquire and examine into the state of the country in its various parts. The reader will find in the perusal of his work a recurrence, occasionally, of the same thought, in different language, which might have been avoided, if the writer had properly digested his materials; yet on the whole, the view which he gives us, is

pretty distinct and clear ; his facts are stated with candour and a proper degree of caution ; his remarks generally shew a considerable knowledge of the science of political economy, and with every part of the country, of which he attempts to give us a correct account ; and his calculations and reasonings, respecting the settlement and future value of the interior, to which his attention seems to have been more particularly given, are, to say the least of them, ingenious, and discover a mind well accustomed to mathematical exactness, as well as to speculation, and reflection. The map, which accompanies the work, is the most correct that has yet been delineated. Of that part, of which actual surveys have been made, the author informs us, that "the sea-coast has been laid down, in many places, by celestial observations, and may therefore in general, be presumed to be tolerably correct, but the interior, having been surveyed by different persons at different times in detached parcels," from the experience of many surveyors, the want of regard to the variation of the needles and the inaccuracies, inevitably attending the admeasurement, while the country was covered with forests, there is found to be a disagreement between the plans of many of these detached surveys and the adjoining ones. These incongruous and disjointed plans, he has endeavoured to put together, by retrenching the dimensions of some, and extending those of others ; but he thinks, although there may be some inaccuracies in the relative extent and form of tracts, that few important errors will be found. Of the extensive interior, which has hitherto been but little explored, only a general outline is attempted. The limits on the north and east, have never been accurately designated. The boundary on the map is drawn from a survey made by the British government, compared with others made by the State of Massachusetts, "which is presumed to be, although not perfectly correct, yet not materially far from the truth."

The local situation and boundaries of the District, are too well known to need description. According to the map, "its length on the eastern frontier is about 210 miles, and on the northern about 280 miles. Its greatest length from north to south is about 225 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west 195 miles. It is estimated to contain 20,882,354 acres, or 32,628 square miles. It has been proposed to alter the northern boundary line, which may

be done advantageously to both governments, if an equivalent can be found for a portion of the lands to be ceded by us, situated in the northern extremity of the District, and which now interferes with the communication between New-Brunswick and Quebeck.

Mr. Greenleaf has divided the District into various divisions or *sections*, as he terms them, which he considers as marked, though not in all instances, very strongly with a peculiarity either in the soil and products, face of the country, or climate. A distinction in the nature of the soil and productions, he thinks, may be seen with considerable clearness in three sections. "The first including the whole tract on the sea-coast, extending from ten to twenty miles back into the country," contains all the varieties of sandy, gravelly, clayey, and loamy soils frequently interspersed, at short distances; seldom very rich, but in many places tolerably fertile. Indian corn, rye, barley, grass, &c. may be considered as the principal products of this *section*. In the second *section*, lying northerly of the former, and extending from the sea about fifty miles, at the western, eighty at the central, and ninety at the eastern part of the District, the soils are of similar kinds, but less frequently diversified, and generally more fertile. The principal products of this *section* are grass, Indian corn, wheat, barley, rye, flax, &c. The third *section*, including all the remaining part of the District, so far as it is known, exhibits great diversities in the appearances of its soils. From the specimens of its agricultural product, as far as attempts have been made, and from the appearance of its soil, as far as it has been examined, it may be concluded that it will produce most, if not all, of the plants usually cultivated in other parts of the District, that wheat, barley, millet, grass, flax, and hemp, will be its most important products, and that some of these, more particularly wheat, will generally succeed here better than in most other *sections* of the country.

In respect to the face of the country, two *sections*, distinguished by a remarkable difference in this particular, present themselves with sufficient force to form a prominent feature, in a comprehensive view of the whole. The one mountainous, the other moderately hilly. The mountainous part, consisting of about one seventh part of the district, may be included within a line, running from the New-Hampshire

line, near Saco river, in a north-easterly direction, rather irregularly, to the eastern branch of the Penobscot, near the mouth of Wanataquoik, and thence in a westerly direction, irregularly to the boundary of the district, near the source of the De Loup. The remainder of the district, with some few exceptions, may be considered as moderately hilly, though not uniformly so, in all its parts. "Viewing the surface of the district collectively, it will appear, that its most elevated part is near the north-western angle, from which it declines, with some degree of regularity, in every direction, to the extreme parts."

In regard to the climate, different parts of Maine exhibit considerable differences, but have not been made the subject of sufficient observation, our author says, to mark their extent and shades of difference, with much precision. He imagines, that the whole district may be divided into four *sections*, nearly parallel with the sea-coast. "In the first, which may be considered to extend about twenty miles from the sea," the seasons are more fluctuating than elsewhere. Sudden transitions "from heat to cold, and from drought to fogs and rain" in the summer, and "from cold and snow to thaws and rain-storms" in the winter, "are not unfrequent." In the south-west part, where the surface of the earth is more cleared of forests and cultivated, the summers are warmer, and the winters are less regular than in the north-east part. The second division, "extending about twenty miles farther into the country," is not "materially different from the former," "except that the seasons are more regular both in winter and summer," "and it preserves a uniformity with itself throughout its whole extent." In the third *section*, extending as far as any settlements have been made, the summers are cooler, and less subject to droughts, or to long and heavy rains, and are more uniform in their temperature, and the winters are longer and more severe. In the western part of this *section*, the frosts disappear later in the spring, and come on earlier in the autumn, and the northwest winds are, for some months every year, more frequent and violent, than in the eastern part. Of the fourth *section*, comprehending all the unsettled part of the district, very little is known. At the French settlement, on the St. John, the summers are favourable to the cultivation of most of the vegetables cultivated in other parts of Maine, Indian corn excepted. The wea-

ther in the winter, is cold and serene, but not so boisterous as on the north-western part of the district. Of the climate of the district generally, Mr. Greenleaf says, "in all parts, where any considerable progress has been made in cultivation, the length and heat of the summer is sufficient for the production of most, if not all, the fruits and vegetables cultivated in New-England generally." "In some parts, however, Indian corn, and the plants of a more tender kind, which require a greater and more uniform degree of heat, are frequently injured, and sometimes destroyed, by the frosts late in the spring and early in the autumn." "In the winter, the snow covers the ground to a considerable depth; its continuance is from two months, in some parts, to four, and, in some instances, five months in others." On the sea-coast its continuance is shorter, and not so regular as in the "interiour;" nor is the average depth so great. "The summers also exhibit a corresponding character," being at times "warmer, though more unsteady near the sea, and more uniform and temperate in the interiour." "The air is pure and salubrious, and although subject to considerable change, at times, yet this is not so great as in many parts of New-England." We think, with Mr. Greenleaf, that there are no *permanent* causes, that can make the climate very materially to differ from that of Massachusetts proper, New-Hampshire, or Vermont. The facts, which he states, shew clearly, that a great alteration has been produced, by clearing up the wilderness and cultivating the lands, by which the earth has been opened to the influence of the rays of the sun, and the fens and swamps have been dried, a change which has been produced by a similar cause in every state in the union.

One fact in particular, which he relates, shews how very much the general temperature of a country depends on causes, within or near it. "Near the centre of the district, and beyond all the settlements yet made, if we except the few near the river St. John, is a tract containing about 400,000 acres, in which the snow is usually gone, and the leaves appear on the trees two or three weeks earlier in the spring; and the weather in the summer, particularly during the night, is sensibly much warmer than in any part of the surrounding country, within forty or fifty miles of it. The only observable difference between this and the adjacent country, to which the difference in climate can be readily

referred, is, that the earth's surface is more exposed to the direct rays of the sun, than in any other part of the country of equal extent. In the autumn of the year 1798, a tremendous hurricane swept over this tract, and levelled with the earth nearly all the trees then standing, since which, fires kindled by the Indians and other hunters, have overrun the most of it, and in many places cleared the surface. A young growth has arisen, but it is not yet, in many places, sufficient to shade the ground so as to prevent, in any great degree, the direct action of the rays of the sun upon it." "It has been examined lately," says Mr. Greenleaf, "by several enterprising farmers and intelligent observers, with a view of making settlements within or near it, and they have unanimously given this the preference to any other tract in the vicinity. Some of them have begun their improvements, and anticipate the most favourable result."

This fact, in connexion with the known temperature of the climate where the French families are settled, near the Matawascah, shews how far the interior country generally, by clearing and tilling the lands, even to a small extent, may be made to support and bring to perfection most of the vegetables, if not all of them, that are commonly raised in the other parts of the state. Indeed it must happen here, as in all other parts of the district, where plants that once could, (if we may credit the accounts of the people, who first settled there,) by no means be brought to perfection, are now cultivated with success. And when we compare the geographical situation of Maine with other countries under the same parallels of latitude, and find that those circumstances of a *permanent* nature, which usually affect the temperature of the climate of a country, are very similar in both; when we consider what the climate of those countries *once* was, and the astonishing effects which the progress of cultivation, an increased population, and the cultivation of the lands have at length produced; when we are told, that a climate almost as dreary and cold as the frozen, twilight regions, around the arctic circle, has yielded to the axe and the plough, we can see no very good reason to doubt, that in some future day, when all our immense forests are cleared, the country as thickly peopled, and the lands in a state of as high cultivation as they *now* are in Europe, Maine, in common with all New-England, will have a climate much milder, more temperate, and more salubrious; and, from the natural fertility of her soil, we may reasonably

expect she will *then*, under the genial influence of the sun, yield to her inhabitants "all the rich luxuries of the vegetable kingdom."

As it respects the soil and vegetable productions of Maine, generally considered, Mr. Greenleaf says, "there is not a material difference between Maine, and other parts of the New-England states. The soil is quite as good on an average, and perhaps better; there is as little waste land, and every circumstance is as favourable to agricultural pursuits, if not more so." In the part of the district that is settled, he reckons, that on an average, there is to each 1000 acres 838 acres of improveable lands, 102 acres of waste land, 47 covered with water, and 13 acres occupied by roads. From the returns of the assessors, it appears, that the average product of bread-stuff per acre from the lands employed by tillage, is about seventeen bushels; but it is well known, that the valuation so taken, is much too low; nor does it extend to the products of the new lands, on which a considerable quantity of bread-stuff is raised; so that it gives but a very imperfect and incorrect account of the products of the whole district. There is, indeed, some difference between the crops produced here, and the crops in other parts of New-England, the best crops being much greater, and the common crops much smaller; but Mr. Greenleaf attributes this more to cultivation, than any other cause. "In very few instances," says our author, "is the land cultivated to a degree, which will exhibit a fair specimen of what it is capable of producing, if the best and most economical methods of husbandry were pursued." On the sea-board the crops of wheat vary, from seven to twelve bushels per acre, and, in the interior, from fifteen to forty bushels. In the eastern part, Indian corn may be rated at from twenty to thirty bushels, and, in the western, from thirty to forty bushels per acre. In the most northerly settlements, the quantity of wheat raised is considerably higher than in other parts; the average crop, near the north-eastern frontier, is thirty-three bushels per acre, and in Penobscot, there have been crops of forty, and even sixty bushels per acre.

We have been more particular in noting every thing remarkable as to the climate, soil, and productions, since the climate has been represented and believed by many, to be most unfavourable to vegetation, and uncomfortable to

man, and the soil barren and fruitless, in an uncommon degree. This was the chief complaint of the emigrants, who lately flocked, like their birds of passage, in such numbers to the southern and western States; and, before the termination of the late war, it had, indeed, become quite a prevailing sentiment, among the inhabitants of the district. We are inclined to think, however, that the general gloom which had then, for several years, overspread the whole country, by reason of the measures of the federal government, damped the spirits of the people of Maine, more especially than any other part of the United States, and brought on a sort of melancholy despondency, which made them look upon every thing around them only on the dark side, and attribute to their local situation and permanent causes, what in reality grew out of the temporary state of the whole nation. In this gloomy state of things, every east wind that blew, every fog that rose from the ocean, seemed unusually dismal and insupportable, and induced a melancholy reverie on their unhappy condition. But the return of peace, and the revival of commerce will, we trust, drive away these melancholy thoughts from their minds, as the sun dissipates the fogs that sometimes envelop their country.

The population of Maine, at the last census, was 228,767. It may be doubted whether the late emigration from there, which, for a time, was going on even to an alarming degree, has not, for these six years past, more than counterbalanced the increase by migration thither, so as to occasion a loss to Maine of part of her natural increase. If not, the number of inhabitants computed at the usual rate of increase throughout the United States, without allowing for any increase by migration into the district, is now not far from 273,157; but probably 270,000 is quite as near the truth. The increase from emigration, from 1772 until 1810, together with the natural increase, was never less than four and an half per cent. and the mean ratio of increase was six per cent. Mr. Greenleaf believes, that by judicious encouragement, it might be kept up to that in future, if not raised higher: but this must depend on so many contingencies, that we can, by no calculations, expect to arrive to any great degree of certainty respecting it, although very probable conjectures may be made. The almost inveterate prejudice, that has been entertained against the climate and

soil, the extravagant representations that have been imposed upon the people of New-England, by the speculators in lands in the western country, relative to the flattering prospects which the country affords to emigrants, and the uncommon effect of the late unfortunate condition of Maine, by depriving her of the benefits resulting from commerce, have operated unfavourably, in turning the current of emigration from the New-England states, during the war, almost wholly to the westward, as well as in causing the emigration we have mentioned, from Maine itself. The rage for emigration to the western States, however, has very considerably abated. Peace, and the return of commerce, have opened new scenes of action and enterprise to the inhabitants of this part of the country, and led them to make a more just estimation of its natural advantages.

Those who left their friends and a comfortable establishment, to seek an imaginary Eden in the state of Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, or Tennessee, have been lamentably disappointed. They did not find the blissful paradise they expected. They found no rivers flowing with "milk and honey," no lands, yielding the bounties of nature, without "the sweat of the brow," and no sylvan deities to cheer their labours and alleviate their toils, in subduing the wilds of these newly settled countries. They found, in fact, what has always been found in a greater or less degree, to be the case, in regard to every new country, that the natural advantages of the soil and climate had been exaggerated, beyond all reasonable bounds, and, in addition to this, that the inhabitants, who had settled there, were an heterogeneous mass, composed principally of enterprising men of divers characters, who "came there with desperate fortunes from every state in the Union, and almost every country on the western shores of Europe." The habits of these people, and the state of society, so different from that, to which they had been accustomed, and a state of things, in every respect so much the reverse of that, which they anticipated, rendered the situation of many so extremely unhappy, as to cause them to regret their removal, and induced a considerable number, who possessed the means, and whose situation would admit of it, (which was not the condition of every one,) to return, and after all, settle down with perfect contentment, in the *very place*, which they left with the most bitter complaints. This has taught a very useful

lesson to those, who are too fond of novelty, and too ready, without any reasonable hope, to look for happiness in a change of place; and we presume they will profit by it.

When we take this circumstance into consideration, and consider also, that at its present rate of increase by emigrations from all the southern Atlantick states, as well as from New-England, the whole western country must, in a very short time, be so thickly settled, that the price of lands will rise beyond the means of most emigrants, and even emigration begin *there* also; that the emigrations from all the old states is annually and rapidly increasing with their population; and consider, too, the difficulties necessarily attending a removal to a distant country; the proximity of Maine to the other parts of New-England; the similarity that exists in the habits, character, and pursuits of all the people of this part of the union; and the advantages, which Maine affords for their favourite pursuits, commerce, and the fisheries; we may, with some confidence conclude, should every thing else remain as favourable as at the present time, and reasonable encouragement be offered, by judicious measures for that purpose, that a very considerable proportion of the people, who annually emigrate from other parts of New-England, will hereafter be induced to settle in the district of Maine. New-York may, indeed, for a short time afford room and encouragement to emigrants from this part of the country; but, by its present rapid increase of population, every inducement, now offered to settle there, will soon be taken away.

Mr. Greenleaf supposes, the average number of inhabitants in the several New-England states, at the time when the surplus population began to emigrate, was about forty to a square mile, although the agricultural, and slave-holding States cannot retain their whole population so long. If the inhabitants are left to pursue those occupations, which their interest requires, and their situation admits, he thinks Maine will support a population as great as any of the other States. At the rate of three per cent. annual increase, she will have this average number in about thirty-four years, and, at the rate of six per cent. in twenty-four years. The migration into Maine, from 1790 to 1810, has amounted to from 21,00 to 2,600 annually, *all* from the New-England states, and *most* of them from Massachusetts, and New-Hampshire. The whole emigration, during that period, from New-

England, has amounted to, from 16,700 to 21,600; and Mr. Greenleaf supposes, it will amount to, from 24,000 to 26,000, for twenty or thirty years to come. The emigrations from Massachusetts, in the same time, have been from 8,400 to 9,400, and must exceed that, in future. It seems, therefore, that only *one eighth* of the emigration from New-England, or *only half* the emigration from Massachusetts has, heretofore, been sufficient to keep up the migration into Maine, at the rate before mentioned. From this we may form some opinion, respecting the effect, which, with proper encouragement, the increasing emigration from the New-England States might have, in peopling the District of Maine. It must not be forgotten, however, that the lands best situated for many purposes are now mostly occupied; that, in some of the counties, a surplus population is already produced, and that the new lands, on which emigrants would choose to settle, are very remote from the sea-coast; which may have some effect in diminishing the migration into the district in future. It seems, from Mr. Greenleaf's statement, that the number of adventurers into the wilderness, has, for several years, been gradually decreasing. He thinks, however, it has not arisen altogether from their remote situation, but *partly* from the distress occasioned, by commercial restrictions and war, which "paralised the enterprise and blighted the hopes" of the people, and *mostly* from a want of proper encouragement, and from impediments, occasioned by the injudicious conduct of the landed proprietors.

The commonwealth, it would seem from Mr. Greenleaf's account, by the course of policy, it has adopted, as to the eastern lands, by selling them to non-residents; throwing a great quantity into the market, at the same time; requiring, by the terms of sale, conditions that could not possibly, under existing circumstances, be performed; making no provisions to prevent the different proprietors from throwing obstacles in the way of each other, either by carelessness or design; and thus producing a general laxity in their exertions; has defeated the chief object it had in view, and checked the settling* of the interior, without

* We have made frequent use of the word *settle*, and its derivatives, in a different sense from any, that is given in any lexicon, we have seen. *Settle*, *settlers*, etc. are in common use in this country, when we speak of felling the forest trees, and clearing, cultivating, and peopling the lands in the wilderness.

even gaining any thing considerable, in point of revenue, from the proceeds of the sales, nor by any means equal to the mischief produced. The illiberal and injudicious conduct of the landed proprietors has greatly increased the evil.

“Of the great body of the landholders at the present day,” says Mr. Greenleaf, “some purchased with a view of retaining the land for a time, in expectation of immense profits from the sale, when the country about them should become improved and peopled, by the exertions of others, without any trouble of their own; others for planting settlements in the wilderness immediately; others to lay up a part of their surplus property for the benefit of their posterity; others, again, only to speculate on the avidity of those, who were seeking to purchase while the demand was raging, and some became unwilling purchasers, because they had no other way to secure large debts.” “Of all these,” (as might reasonably have been expected,) “by far the greater part have expended nothing, or next to nothing, in making improvements and encouraging settlements, and, in most instances, where any improvements have been made, a large sum has been drawn from the active capital of the district in the shape of an increased price on their lands.” This has retarded, in a great degree, the settlement of the interior country; and Mr. Greenleaf thinks from this continued exhaustion of the active capital, much injury in future will arise.

Of the commerce of Maine, Mr. Greenleaf has not given us a very minute statement. “It consists principally in exports of lumber, fish, potash, beef, pork, bread-stuff, and a small share of manufactures, and in imports of colonial produce from the West-Indies, and manufactured articles with salt, hemp, iron, etc. from Europe and other parts.” The amount of revenue for three years, ending 1807, collected in the district, was 1,165,368 dollars, and for the three succeeding years, 613,772 dollars. But, since many articles of her domestick as well as foreign produce are carried to Massachusetts and other States, either for exportation or consumption, and many domestick articles of other States, and foreign produce are imported through the medium of Massachusetts proper, this furnishes no conclusive evidence of the amount of the whole trade. “That Maine possesses abundant resources for

foreign commerce," says Mr. Greenleaf, "cannot be doubted. In her present state, were the attention of her inhabitants sufficiently directed to agriculture, she must export large quantities of beef, pork, flour, corn, etc. Her supply of lumber and materials for potash is immense, and her resources for the fisheries almost inexhaustible. Her situation, too, is peculiarly favourable. The numerous rivers, by which she is intersected, afford a conveyance for lumber, etc. to the market, and perhaps no country of equal extent possesses more or better harbours."

The statement of the manufactures is taken from the decennial valuation, which is supposed to fall far short of the whole amount, especially as many articles are entirely omitted. By this valuation it appears, that "in all those articles, which may be considered of prime necessity, Maine far *exceeds* her proportion, when compared with the average of the United States. In the establishments for carding wool, dressing cloth, and making nails, and in the manufacture of wood, hats, soap, hides and skins dressed, and cordage, Maine particularly exceeds her proportion.

The relative wealth of the district, compared with Massachusetts proper, as deduced from the census, appears to have gradually increased very much since 1782, but not in proportion to her population. In 1782, the wealth of Maine was to Massachusetts as ninety three to 907, and in 1810, as 234 to 766. The wealth, on an average to each individual, at the former period, was as 598 to 1075, and at the latter, as 716 to 1136. The decrease of the average amount of individual wealth, is undoubtedly to be ascribed to the great number of poor immigrants, who have swoln the population, without adding much to the wealth of the district. The actual wealth of the district for several years past, has not probably increased in proportion with that of Massachusetts proper. It has always fluctuated with commerce, and depended, in a considerable degree, on the use of foreign capital, furnished to those engaged in the fisheries, the lumber trade, and the manufacturing of potash, which has given a stimulus to industry, and even benefitted the agriculturist, but which, with the decline of commerce, has been gradually withdrawn.

Mr. Greenleaf has given us a pretty general description of the interior, partly, as he says, from personal knowledge, and partly, from a comparison of the accounts of all, who

have traversed it. It contains, according to his estimation, not far from 16,031,000 acres, about 4,352,000 of which belong to individuals, and 11,779,000 to the State. In some parts, settlements are beginning, but in the whole, there are not more than 1500 families. On the western side of the district, is a tract extending east to the Kennebeck, and north to the heads of the Chaudiere, rugged and mountainous, the climate is inclement, and the lands are generally not good. It will sustain less population, and affords less advantages for agriculture, than any other part of the district. The tract extending from this eastward to the Penobscot, and north to the head of its eastern branch, is the reverse of it, and contains a great proportion of good land, and is favourable to all the purposes of agriculture. The tract, east of the Penobscot and south of Passamaquoddy and Schoodick lakes, is not so uniformly good; its proximity to the sea and the rivers, that intersect it, however, afford facilities and inducements to the farmer, superior to any in any other part of the district of equal extent. Between the Passadumkeag and Metawamkeag, is a large proportion of good land. North of this is a large tract of low swampy lands, extending nearly fifty miles on the Metawamkeag. On the east and west of this, are large tracts of excellent land. The country, watered by the St. John and its branches, forming the greatest *section* of the interior, is generally good land, and on the banks of the rivers are some very rich intervals. The interior, on the whole, collectively considered, Mr. Greenleaf thinks, is as rich in point of soil, and has as little waste land as any part of New-England of the same extent; and there is no territory in the United States, that affords so many advantages for communication with different markets, already established and flourishing. The country is intersected, in every direction, by the Kennebeck, Schoodick, Penobscot, and St. John, and their numerous branches, which afford a means of conveyance to the tide waters, as well as offer the means of an extensive internal communication, between various parts of the district. Mr. Greenleaf undertakes to shew the facility, with which, by canals and locks, such communications in many places might be made, and the great advantage that would result therefrom to the state, in the increased value of the lands.

The lands, in towns and plantations incorporated, amount to 4,850,356 acres, and Mr. Greenleaf estimates their value per acre, when they are settled (so that on an average, there are twenty persons to a square mile) to be not less than twenty-seven dollars, at the lowest rate of agricultural improvement, though he thinks, a greater or less degree of population does not always increase the value proportionably. In regard to the value of the wild lands, there is a great variety of opinions; and it depends on all the contingencies, that relate to the settling of that territory. To ascertain the present value, by a calculation of those contingencies, Mr. Greenleaf first divides the country into twenty imaginary *sections*, and each *section* into thirty-two townships, each about six miles square. He estimates the value of land at two dollars per acre, when each *section* contains forty families to a town, and the country is populating at a rate, that would cause the whole to be settled, in five, or seven years. He supposes the money expended for the lands to be laid out in improvements, the persons settling in each town to occupy, when settled to that extent, 4000 acres, and allows the same quantity for waste lands, leaving in each township, about 15,000 acres. One township, thus settled, would be worth then, 30,000 dollars, and the whole *section* 960,000 dollars. On the supposition, that the migration into the district should be as great as from 1790 to 1805, one *section* would be filled to this extent every five years, if one half the emigrants settle on the new lands, as they have done heretofore, on an average. The whole District would then be thus settled in 100 years; and the present worth of 960,000 dollars, payable every five years for 100 years, being 2,830,700 dollars. The present value of the whole wild land, on this supposition, would be about seventeen and an half cents per acre. But, if the migration should be no greater than from 1800 to 1810, each *section* would not be settled in less than seven years, and the whole of the interior country in 140 years. On this last supposition, the value of the lands would at present be only twelve cents per acre. But Mr. Greenleaf supposes, that by judicious measures and proper encouragement, one half at least of the whole annual emigration from the New-England States, might be invited to settle in the District of Maine; and provided that should average

twelve thousand persons annually, and the same average proportion settle on the new lands, then each *section* would be settled in about one year, and the whole interior in a little less than twenty-two years, and the present value of the wild lands, on that supposition, could not be less than sixty-seven and a half cents per acre. But long before the whole interior would be peopled, at either of the rates before mentioned, many of the towns, having the number of families required, would still (and mostly from that circumstance) offer advantages far superiour to any, for agricultural purposes, in any other part of the interior country; and the lands would still be considerably cheap, so as to induce many to settle on them in preference to the wild lands. Mr. Greenleaf thinks, the number who may be induced to settle in them, rather than venture on the new lands, together with their natural increase of population, will cause many of them to be fully peopled, while the settlement of the whole is in progress, and that this, with the increasing demand for lands which would then exist, must greatly increase the value of the whole territory, beyond the rate at which he has estimated it.

The expenditures, that would be necessary to increase the migration to Maine, and effect the peopling of the wild lands in the period last mentioned, Mr. Greenleaf thinks would be much more than compensated by the increase in the value of the lands above the highest supposed rate per acre, the revenue to be afforded by taxes on the additional population, the wealth that would be brought into the state, or acquired by the labours of the emigrants, after they go thither, and the physical strength, and resources, which would result therefrom to the state. If the state tax, (which, on an average to each person, is now about nineteen cents,) were increased, so that the average tax on each individual should be twenty-seven cents, it would not be burdensome, nor would the average individual assessment be so great, as that, on which the present annual tax was first calculated. And if the sum of five hundred and seventy-nine thousand dollars were appropriated for the purpose abovementioned, it might thus be refunded in twenty-two years, by the annual assessment on the persons migrating to and settling in the District. Should this sum be found insufficient, and even the sum of eight million nine hundred and thirty thousand dollars, (being the difference

between the present value of the wild lands and their value at the highest supposed rate per acre, to which they might be raised,) be thought necessary, this might be expended in portions of seven hundred and forty-one thousand annually, giving to each township, as its share, progressively, as settlements should be made, the sum of twenty-four thousand seven hundred dollars; and even under all *this* expense, Mr. Greenleaf thinks the state would (besides the full worth of the lands, under the present circumstances,) realise a *great benefit* from the consequent increase of its resources, strength, and respectability. But if, trusting to fortuitous events to effect a reflux of the current of emigration to Maine, her inhabitants should be left to force their own way into the wilderness, as the increasing density of her population shall compel some of the most indigent of them to go thither in quest of the means of subsistence, the consequence will be a slow and tedious progress of the settlements; the people who may settle there, will be able to pay but little for their lands, will make no improvements, and add little or nothing to the value of the remainder of the territory. Whatever sum may be finally realised from the whole sales in this way, will be received at such a distance of time to come, that its present worth will be quite inconsiderable, and the lowest estimate of the value of the wild lands, at twelve cents per acre, quite too high. According to the encouragement to be given, therefore, Mr. G. imagines the value of the interior country will vibrate between one million and eleven million dollars, and that not only the wealth, influence, and dignity of the state, but the moral character of the people, may be affected by the measures that may be taken in relation to this important subject.

“If then,” he says in the conclusion “aside from the consideration of mere revenue, it should be admitted, that the preserving to Massachusetts the most respectable part of her surplus population, with a share of that of the neighbouring states, to which she is allied by every tie of local situation, kindred habit, social and religious institution, and feelings, reciprocity of interests, and community of danger, is in any degree of probability attainable, by liberal and judicious measures, to open and improve the vacant territory, and develop its latent advantages; if the same measures may be made to tend directly, and indirectly, to ameliorate the moral character of the people, as unquestionably may be the case;

and if superadding also, the consideration of the eventual wealth, physical strength, and stability to be derived from this accession of numbers and character, the object is more than sufficient to counterbalance any expenditures, which the increased price, and the anticipated interest on the eventual sales of the land may be expected to refund, it must be evident, that the present actors on the stage of life in this commonwealth, have an object before them demanding their deepest attention; the future interest of the state will be affected in a peculiar manner, by the exertions, or the neglect of the present day, and a high degree of responsibility rests on those who shall suffer to pass unimproved, the opportunities now before them, and undischarged, the important trust devolved on them for the benefit of their posterity."

It may perhaps be thought, that Mr. Greenleaf is a little visionary in his speculative opinions, and too sanguine in his expectation of legislative aid, as well as of the consequences that might result from the policy, which he recommends. As it regards legislative encouragement, it is certain, that before the people of this state would be willing to authorize the expenditure of the sum *last mentioned*, they would require very conclusive evidence, that their money would, in some shape or other, be soon realised again; and it will be difficult to remove *all* doubt from a subject involving so many contingencies. It would take some time, also, to do away former prejudices entirely, and convince emigrants of the advantages that may be realised, in settling on the wild lands, under *any* encouragement the legislature might give. And it would seem, at first view, that when any considerable part of such a vast extent of territory should be partly peopled, so as to offer greater advantages, and hold forth better prospects to the farmer, than the rest, and yet, at a very low price, it would absorb the whole number of emigrants for many years, or leave, at most, but very few, whose desperate condition would drive them into the uncultivated wilderness. This would not, however, make a great difference in the benefits, to result to the state, if the supposed number of emigrants could be annually invited to settle, on some part of the now uncultivated lands, as the value of lands must increase with the population, as well as must the resources of the state. And when we consider the rapid growth of the population of new countries, by natural increase, the great number of emigrants

that will be supplied from other parts of the district, from the now very populous territories, which border on the north and east of it, and all the circumstances that will be likely in future, with proper encouragement given, to persuade emigrants, from other parts of New-England, to settle in Maine, we are almost inclined to believe, that Mr. Greenleaf's calculations concerning the peopling of the country, if such encouragement be given, are not so very extravagant and unreasonable. It must be recollected, however, that no calculations, respecting the peopling and consequent value of the wild lands can be made, without some uncertainty, arising from the fluctuating, ever-varying state of human affairs, and the future changes, which in our own government, as well as in every other, may materially affect the welfare of the people. We can hardly reckon with safety on the stability of any given situation of things, from year to year, much less for twenty, and still less for an hundred and forty years to come. What revolutions may intervene, what new order of things may arise, what will be the future situation of Maine, or even of the union, in any considerable length of time, it is on this account difficult to prognosticate. We ought not, however, to augur ill, and surely we ought not to relax in our exertions for the prosperity and happiness of the community, from any doubts we may have that events, now entirely beyond our ken, may happen to defeat our labours.

We have taken this view of Mr. Greenleaf's book, chiefly to call the attention of our readers to the situation, resources, and growing importance of the District of Maine, and to enable them from these data, better to appreciate justly the mutual advantages and disadvantages, arising from the political connexion of Massachusetts and Maine, under one government, and the consequences that will flow from the contemplated separation, if effected in the manner, and on the terms and conditions, for which the legislature at their last session provided. This is a subject, which opens to us a boundless field of inquiry, and is deeply interesting to every individual in the commonwealth. Here no trifling, or temporary objects—no uncertain benefit—no local feelings, prejudices or interests inconsistent with the publick good—no political antipathies—and no purposes connected with the interests of any party, ought to have the smallest influence on our minds. We ought not to look to the present only,

but to the future. It should be remembered, that on the opinions, which may be entertained, and the course which may be taken, in this momentous business, will depend, perhaps, in a greater degree than we anticipate, the fate of millions; that it may deeply affect not only the interest and welfare of the inhabitants of the commonwealth, now on the stage of life, but may reach in its baneful influence, to posterity, and become a cause of the greatest mischief hereafter, when the little, busy, meddling, short-sighted, politician of the day, with his ephemeral projects, is gone and forgotten.

In the light, in which we have viewed the subject, we cannot but deeply regret, that an opinion should be entertained by any of the people of Maine or Massachusetts, that the time has arrived when it is necessary to prepare the way for a dissolution of the political connexion between us, under which we have grown up and prospered, and obtained a high rank in the nation; but much more do we regret, that the warmest advocates of the measure should not have been content to reason candidly and fairly, but should have thought it expedient, in order to gain proselytes, to resort to false statements and sophistry, to create in the minds of the ignorant and credulous, wrong notions, and improper feelings, on a subject of so much weight and consequence. If, by submitting the question to the people, it was intended that the wisdom and expediency of the measure should be tested, surely one-sided statements and false representations, made to those, who from necessity are oftentimes obliged to take up with any opinion that comes in their way, the fallacy of which, they have neither time, nor the means to detect, must be extremely pernicious, and therefore shew no very honest, or good intentions, in those, who obtrude them upon the publick. We would not, however, be understood to apply our remarks indiscriminately to *all* those, who are in favour of a separation; for we believe there are many respectable men in the community, who, with great integrity, very seriously differ in their opinions respecting the expediency, and the consequences of it. Its consequences, we are apt to believe, have not been very fully examined, and many (particularly the inhabitants of Massachusetts Proper) after having heard an incessant din and clamour for a great number of years, have been persuaded there must be some real cause of complaint, and that, injurious as the consequences may be, it has become really expedient, and almost abso-

lutely necessary, to listen to what they suppose to be the voice of a great majority of the people. The subject has been agitated, sometimes with more, and sometimes with less zeal, ever since the year 1785. Conventions have been held, and pamphlets published, and every exertion made by the friends of a separation, to gain over the people. The legislature at length thought it expedient, a few years ago, to submit the question to the people of the District, that the opinion of that part of the state, on this subject, might be known. The result convinced them of that, which it was not difficult to discover, that all the noise and clamour that had been made, proceeded from a few busy, aspiring men, and those under their influence, desirous of preferment and the emoluments of office; and many of whom seemed to think that the promotion of their own personal interests, was advancing the best interests of the state. For even after all their diligence and zeal, in endeavouring to enlist the feelings of the people in their cause, the great body of the District seemed to be content with their situation, and not more than the small number of *three thousand five hundred* were found to be in favour of the project. The question has been again recently submitted in the same manner to the people, and by the returns of votes, as stated by the committee of the legislature, it appears that the number in favour of the measure now has much increased, but does not amount to even *one fourth part* of the legal voters in the District.

The most obvious conclusion that can be drawn from this last trial, is, that a very large proportion of the people in Maine, are still entirely satisfied with their present condition, and know not enough of the advantages, or evils, which will attend the measure, to feel much concern about it; or take any active part, either to prevent, or promote the separation. And now, when we consider the exertions which have been made by an active, enterprising body of men, for these more than thirty years, to work up the feelings of the people to demand a separation—by setting forth, and exaggerating every imaginary advantage, and conjuring up every phantom, that it could be supposed would, in any shape cause alarm—by going from town to town, entering the cottage of the farmer, and the workshop of the mechanic—flattering the pride of some, and appealing to the local interests of others—publishing pamphlets and essays in

the newspapers—creating jealousies, antipathies and animosities, and fostering local prejudices—preaching every where the evils of the present government and the wonderful effects of a change—all calculated to enkindle the zeal of many, and allay the fears and apprehensions of all—and when we consider too, the love of innovation—the aptness to expect to better their condition by it—and the almost puerile fondness of seeing *something in motion*, even at the hazard of their dearest interests—which is the strong characteristic of the great mass of the people in every government—we are not at all surprised to find the number of the discontented has *increased*; but on the contrary, are astonished to find that it is *now so small*. And this circumstance furnishes pretty strong grounds of belief, that there is not any *substantial* cause of complaint against the present system of government, and no very good reasons for the dissolution, of our political connexion. Else why have not the people long ago, universally discovered them and complained? If the connexion has *really* been so *very* prejudicial to them, why have they *all this while*, been so *generally* contented under it.

From this view of the subject, we cannot but think, that the legislature was a little more hasty than the occasion required, in immediately submitting the self-same question again to the people, and seemingly giving countenance to, and encouraging the advocates of a separation, by making, without a moments delay, all the preliminary arrangements for it, as if it were an event that were *desireable*, and would *certainly happen*. If the return of votes was not considered as a very distinct expression of the will of the people, the business might at least have been *deferred*, until that was more fully known. But if the question must be submitted in any shape, why, we may well ask, was it not submitted to the *whole* people? Have not the inhabitants of *Massachusetts* *Proper* the *same interest* in the great question, as the people of *Maine*, and the same right to know, and to have a voice in settling the terms and conditions, on which the political compact between them is to be dissolved? Or have the legislature any more power to act for the *one* than for the *other*? To say the least, the legislature, by the act referred to, have undertaken to exercise their power in an unusual manner, and in a way, which has very naturally brought into discussion some points,

relative to the political compacts and fundamental laws, which form the basis of our state and federal governments, hitherto but little considered, but which it is of the highest consequence to have rightly understood and settled. Here then let us stop for a moment, to inquire whether a separate and independent state can be erected within this commonwealth, consistently with the fundamental laws of the State, and of the Union, *without the consent of the majority of the whole people?*

To determine this question, we must fix upon some data. And first; it will not be disputed, that the principles and rules of government, contained in our constitutions, so far as they are clearly expressed, or can be understood, must be strictly observed. But these principles are necessarily very general, and very few in number, and even the terms by which they are expressed, have often a technical, or scientific meaning. So that to determine the limits of many of the undefined powers, duties, and rights of both rulers and subjects, as well as to learn, in what sense the terms employed to define any of them, are to be taken, it will be necessary to consider the object, which those who framed, and those who adopted our constitutions, had in view, and to have recourse to those principles of civil government, which, it must be presumed, they intended should be our guides, in the construction, and explanation of those instruments. The general laws of civil society then, which are not inconsistent with the spirit of our republican government, are, in relation to our constitutions, what the English common law is, in relation to our statutes. As the latter is of use, in expounding the letter of the statute book, and supplies the place of written law, in cases, which the pen of the law-giver has not described, so the former furnish rules of interpreting the constitutions of our government, and supply the place of written fundamental laws, where the constitutions are wholly silent. To come then to the question.

If the power to dismember the State, and erect within its jurisdiction a separate and independent government, does not reside in the *whole* people, it must reside in some *part* of them, or have been committed to some *body of men* in the State, or national government. Does it reside in the legislature of this State? Let us suppose, for the sake of the argument, that the power of this body is not ex-

pressly defined by our constitutions, and that it is as extensive as the power of any legislative body in a republican government, left to implication, and unlimited, save by the ends and purposes of civil society, can be. The writers on political law agree, that a dismemberment of a state cannot be made, without dissolving the political compact, and that this can only be done by the *will of the majority of the whole people*. Vattel, who, to use his own words, "was born in a country, of which liberty was the soul, the treasure, and the fundamental law," and whose opinion will, therefore, be the more respected by our countrymen, says: "In the act of association, in virtue of which a multitude of men form together a state, or nation, each individual has entered into engagements with all, to procure the common welfare, and all have entered into engagements with each individual to facilitate for him the means of supplying his necessities, and to protect, and defend him. It is manifest, these reciprocal engagements can be no otherwise fulfilled, than by maintaining the political association. The entire nation is obliged to maintain that association, and as in its duration the preservation of a nation consists, it follows from thence, that every nation is obliged to perform the duty of self-preservation. If it is obliged to preserve itself, it is not less obliged to preserve all its members. It owes this to itself, it owes it also to the members in particular, in consequence of the act of association; for those who compose a nation are united for their defence and common advantage, and none can justly be deprived of this union, and of the advantages that flow from it, while he on his side fulfils the conditions." "Hence," he infers, "it cannot abandon them, and is under an obligation of maintaining them in the rank of members of the union." And the able commentator on Grotius says, the contrary opinion is absurd; "for if the society has this right, the corresponding obligation of the parts must be, not only an obligation to be directed by the will of the society, in return for protection, but even to obey the society, when their obedience would put them out of its protection." It follows then, as these writers admit, that the legislative body, which derives all its authority from the society, can have no such power delegated to it, when by the fundamental laws, no express provision is made for it. Now the language of our constitution in this state, in defining the nature

and objects of the government, under which we live, agrees perfectly with the definition of the political compact, given by Vattel. "The body politick," says our constitution, "is formed by a voluntary association of individuals. It is a social compact, by which the whole people covenants with each citizen, and each citizen with the whole people, that all shall be governed, by certain laws, for the common good." The people, who adopted it, call it, in the language of the instrument itself, "a new constitution of civil government, for themselves and for posterity," and declare its object to be, "to secure the existence of the body politick, to protect it, and to furnish the individuals who compose it the power of enjoying in safety their natural rights, and the blessings of life." All power of "altering, reforming, or totally changing the government" is prohibited to every "man, or class of men," and expressly reserved to "the people," as their "indefeasible right," in whom "all power originally resides," and who "are not controlable by any other laws, than those, to which their *constitutional* representative body has given its consent." Those who compose this body, are "the substitutes or agents" of the people, "to whom they are accountable," and are, as a body, forbidden to make any laws, "repugnant to the constitution."

It seems then, that the power given to the legislature, by the constitution of this State, is to support the government, and not to dismember, or destroy it; to protect the whole people, and not to abandon a part of them; to administer the government over the whole commonwealth, and not to limit its views, or wholly confine the operation of its laws to any district, town, or individual. Has the constitution of the United States then, which is paramount to the constitutions of the several states, conferred on the legislature this authority, by so modifying our state constitution, as to make it consistent with its duty? We would rather strain, and make unusual constructions of the language, than give to the federal constitution a meaning, that would so essentially alter the nature of the social compacts, which the citizens of each state had entered into before its adoption, and that would take so much power from the people, and vest it in their legislative body—a power inconsistent with the nature of its trust, and with the ideas of liberty, which the people then embraced. But the language of this

instrument is too plain to be mistaken. "New states may be *admitted* by Congress into this Union; but no new state shall be *formed*, or *erected* within the jurisdiction of any other state; nor any state be *formed* by the junction of two or more states, without the *consent* of the legislatures of the states concerned, *as well as* of congress." Now it would be a solecism and ridiculous to say, that the legislature shall not have power to form and erect a new state, *without its own consent*, or may have power to form and erect such state *with its own consent*. For the very term "*consent*" implies the admission or allowance by *one* mind of the completion of the intentions of *another*.

It is clear then, that the framers of the constitution had in view some power capable of being exercised legally, in the formation and erection of an independent state, not residing in the legislative body of any one of the states, but over which it was proper the legislatures of the several states should have some control, so far only, however, as to have a negative on its acts. Does this power then reside in the district desiring to be separated, and formed into an independent state? This question has been already decided by the principles we have established. All writers on civil government, affirm that no part of a society, less than a majority of the whole body politick, has a right or power to dismember the government or separate itself from the rest, and neither the constitution of the state, or of the federal government, has conferred this power upon it.

We come then to the last inquiry, which can rationally be made. Does this power reside in Congress? And here we may premise, that it is hardly supposable, considering the extreme caution and jealousy, with which the people watched and guarded their liberties and the independence of the several states, that they would any more readily confer this power on *Congress*, than on their *respective legislatures*. If then this power is not *expressly* conferred on Congress, it surely cannot be *implied*, unless it be a necessary consequence of some power expressly given. But the phrase "Congress shall have power to admit new states into the Union," that is *to suffer* such states *to enter* into this Union, necessarily supposes the *previous existence* of such state, having a will of its own, and being at least, *conditionally* discharged from all subjection to any other state, and having a legal capacity, inceptive on the

performance or happening of that condition, of acting as an independent state. The giving to Congress the power *to suffer such a state to enter into* the Union, does by no means imply the delegation of a power of forming and erecting an independent state, by imposing on any people a constitution of government, discharging them from their allegiance to all other governments, and enacting that they shall thereafter have the capacity to act as an independent state; but directly the reverse. It implies that Congress have *no other power*, in this case, than *to suffer* any state, having the liberty of acting as such, on application, *to enter into*, and enjoy the benefits of this confederacy. This construction is established by the clause, "without the *consent* of the legislatures of the states concerned *as well as* of Congress," which very clearly shews, that Congress, as well as the *legislature*, can only give their *consent* to the formation and erection of a new state, and supposes a power to effect this, residing in *some other* body, than the legislatures of the several states or Congress. In fact, the intention of the framers of the federal constitution is extremely evident. They meant to leave the power of forming a separate and independent state within any of the several states of the Union, where by the laws of civil society, and the fundamental laws of that state it *originally* resided, namely, in the *majority* of the society, but thought it prudent to check the abuse of this power, (which might in many instances be factious, of which they then had a recent example,) by giving to the legislatures of the states concerned, as well as Congress, a negative on its acts.

We have therefore, on the question first proposed, come to a different conclusion from that, in which the majority of the legislature coincided. We have attached the more importance to this question, since it is necessary in every government, and particularly in ours, (founded on written constitutions, which are the charters of the rights of the people,) that the fundamental laws should be canvassed until they are well understood, and since, if the rage for *state-making* should continue, it may not be long before the same question will come up again for consideration, in some part of the Union, if not in this Commonwealth.

It is at least questionable, whether the act of the legislature, which we have been considering (if it were so in this case,) is in other respects constitutional. It would seem to follow from the principles we have laid down, as well as

from the opinion of all writers on political law, that the legislature have no constitutional power to divide, or dispose of the publick property between the two parts of the state, in the event of a separation, nor any right to a voice in settling the terms, on which the division is to be made. This certainly is not involved in an authority to sever the state. The people of *Massachusetts proper*, for aught we can see, have the same right to a voice in this business, as the people of *Maine*. All that part of the act, intended to have a binding effect on the District of Maine, after it becomes a separate state, must also be merely nugatory, unless it can be considered as making part of the terms and conditions, to which the assent of the people of Maine is required. This was probably the intent, but it is difficult to infer it from the language of the act.

But we have dwelt quite long enough on these constitutional questions, since, if the assent of the District of Maine, and of Congress is obtained, neither the legality of the act, nor the manner in which the separation is made, will afterwards, be called in question. We return to the consideration of the policy of the measure, and the consequences, which will flow from it, if the people of Maine concur to bring it about. If there were no other objections to the intended separation, we should oppose it, as being injurious to the welfare of the nation, by increasing the number of States. We have always thought that those, who advocated the admission of new states, out of the territory of the government, into this Union, would have much to answer for to posterity, in consequence of it, on this very account.

Our federal government has not yet been long enough in operation to develop its powers and defects, and some of our statesmen have been quite as extravagant, in ascribing to it virtues, it does not possess, as others have been zealous to prove its entire inefficacy. One of their wildest and most mistaken opinions is, that the nature of this confederacy is such, that it can, consistently with every purpose of government, and with its own preservation, be made to embrace an *indefinite number* of independent states. Some of these visionaries even strenuously maintain, that *the larger* the number of states in the Union, *the better*; and confidently assure us, that this same government may be made to expand, over the whole continent. We may, at some future day, have occasion to repent the eagerness, with

which we have been aiming, at least partially to try the experiment. It must be admitted, by every one, that the larger the number of states, in the Union is, the more complicated the machine of government will be, and its movements and operations, consequently, in all cases, more liable to be irregular, disturbed, and interrupted.

The people of each state will have laws, and customs, and interests of their own, which, although now, in every state in the confederacy, in most respects similar, must every day grow more and more unlike. Among a large number of states, it will be more difficult, on this account, to understand the true character and interest of each, and to accommodate any measures to the interests of the whole. It is necessary for the statesman, who would legislate for the community, to study and know the different constitutions, laws, customs, political, and moral character of the people of each state—he should know their agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial interests; and their wealth, strength and resources. But when the sphere, within which he moves, makes but a small part of the nation, he can have no very correct notions of the whole community collectively considered, nor a competent degree of knowledge to act understandingly, on any question of national concern. When the states become numerous, and their laws, and consequently their manners and pursuits very dissimilar, it will be *morally impossible* to understand their different interests, and to reconcile them with each other.

The difficulty of effecting a cooperation of the several states in any one measure, which the legislature may think it most expedient on the whole to adopt, will be quite as great, as that of learning their different interests, and what will best promote their individual welfare. When the number of states is great, the inhabitants of the several states will not feel much cordiality for each others prosperity—they will rather view each other as strangers than as neighbours and fellow-citizens—and from the diversity of opinion, of feeling and of interest that must, in such case, exist, there will be always more or less of the states opposed to any course, which the federal government may finally pursue—and opposition, acting with the several states dissenting, will become very powerful. Here domestick faction or foreign intrigue will meet with encouragement, and rebellion may boldly unfold its banners; for one or two individual states closely united, by one common interest, and in pursuit of one common object, can have little to fear from a

confederacy of states, whose interests are clashing with each other, and whose union is merely *nominal*.

The courts of law, moreover, will be no less embarrassed in times of domestick quiet, than the legislature of the nation will be in times of domestick discord. The supreme court of the United States, in many cases, is bound to decide according to the common law, the statutes and the practice of the courts of the state where the cause of action originated. It is necessary, therefore, that the judge should consult the laws of each state, and be conversant, in some degree, with the practice of its courts, or he must take his opinion wholly from the counsel. If he should for want of better information, undertake to decide according to the law, and practice, as read and commented upon by the counsel of either side, or from a comparison of both arguments, the correctness of his opinion must depend on the learning and ability of the counsel, and the law must be settled by the *bar*, and not by the *bench*; and if he should undertake to decide on his *own* knowledge, he must give an opinion *at random*. For different systems of jurisprudence, growing up in the several states, and reported decisions multiplying, and becoming far more voluminous than the ancient Roman law, will render it impracticable, in the course of a whole life, to attain even a general and superficial acquaintance with the principles of each. This will also be the cause of no small perplexity wherever the *lex loci* comes in question, in the several courts of the individual states.

It may, at some future period, be found necessary, in consequence of a change in the condition of the nation, in order to make the federal government suitable to the then existing state of things, to alter the constitution, in some respects. But it would, even now be very difficult to make the requisite number of states concur in any amendment, which might be proposed, and if the number of states increases continually, it must soon be wholly impracticable to effect, in a peaceable manner, by agreement, any alteration however salutary or necessary it may be. We must continue to live under the government, however unsuitable to our condition, until a considerable part of the people become so dissatisfied, as to bring about a change by a revolution.

The want of concert among the states, will be found to endanger the welfare of the nation most in war. In times of

immediate danger the nation cannot depend on volunteers, and before the forces of each state can be called into the field, under the command of the President, the Governours of the several states must be consulted, and are at liberty to dispute the sufficiency of the alledged cause for ordering out the militia; and while the national force is collecting, by small parcels, in this way, from each state in the union, the enemy may make great progress in the country. It will be difficult, from time to time, as occasion may require, by demanding small quotas from each state, to supply the army with troops, and when supplied, they will act with less unanimity and regularity, and therefore with less effect, in proportion as their manners and views are more dissimilar. Indeed where the number of states is unreasonably multiplied, the inhabitants of each state feel but little interest in the welfare of any state, but their own—all other states are foreign to them—their different manners and conflicting interests breed antipathies and animosities—they have no national sentiments—hardly a common language, no common pursuits or interests—in fact, nothing common to them but their federal constitution—and the bonds of the confederacy will of course, burst asunder on the slightest political convulsion. These are very serious objections to the sub-division and consequent multiplication of the states in the Union, and will apply to the case before us.

But a no less weighty consideration, is the effect which a division of the state must necessarily have on each part, and on the nation at large, by creating small states. In favour of this idea, it will undoubtedly be urged, that the legislatures of the small states can make laws, most suitable to the character and local interests of all their citizens, and better adapted to every emergency, and as that is the very object of our state governments, it is best answered, by dividing the Union into small states. There is, however, much more plausibility than weight in this argument. The doctrine, that particular laws are necessary for a particular state of society, and that the laws ought to be made to conform to the manners, character, and condition of the society, we partially admit. But it has been pushed much too far. It is in most cases quite as practicable to regulate every thing in relation to the manners and morals of the people, which the statesman ever ought to attempt to control, by general laws, which are applicable to all people in every government, as to produce any benefit by laws specially

adapted to any small district. In respect to the civil code, people whose general characters have been quite dissimilar, we know have lived under nearly the same laws. The laws of the Romans, at this very day, form the basis of the municipal laws of more than half the nations of Europe. The truth is, right and wrong, justice and injustice, are very nearly the same every where; and in our country there can be no good pretensions, for any distinction in the laws, in this respect. The same laws for enforcing contracts and obligations, for the encouragement of science, for the promotion of virtue, and the punishment of vice are as proper for the state of Georgia as for Maine.

Nor can any distinct local interests or any great convenience require, that every small district should have a legislature of its own to make laws adapted to them. *Formerly* it might be necessary, for the want of the means of conveying information over a large country, and keeping up a sort of acquaintance between the government and the people, that the government should extend only over a small territory. But since the communication of intelligence of every kind to and from any, the most remote and obscure part, of a large extent of country, is made so easy, by the daily publication of newspapers, the interests of every citizen in the community can be made known to the government, the condition of every part of the state may be understood, and the proceedings of the government, and the laws also can be immediately known, by the subject when the territory, over which the same government is exercised, is large, nearly as well, as when it is very small. And even in a large government, no class of the citizens will have local interests, that ought to be encouraged, which, when known to the government, it will not be interested, as well as anxious, to promote. The encouragement of agriculture, of commerce and of manufactures must be as much for the interest and welfare of the whole state, as it can be for the benefit of any particular class of men in it.

The idea, that the form of our state governments is not calculated, for a large extent of territory, is equally as erroneous as that, which we have just been endeavouring to confute. And at any rate, the constitutions of the several states, must be so modelled, as to support a large government, for if the Union were to be divided into states as small as Massachusetts Proper, in respect to territory,

there must in a short time, when the western country is peopled, be no less than *two hundred and twenty* different states ; a number wholly incompatible with the proper administration of the federal government.

It may, perhaps, be imagined, and indeed we have often heard it maintained, that if the Union is composed of large states, and they are few in number, the government of any one of them, may set the federal government at defiance, or by intrigue control the rest, and produce a revolution—and that by creating a large number of small states, neither any one of them, nor any state in the federal government, will be able to control the rest, usurp power, or overturn the government—because most of the states individually will in this case be too weak to make any such attempt, and in a large number of states, many will probably oppose it, should the attempt be made—and therefore the larger the number of small states, the greater the check on tyranny in the head, or any of the members of the confederacy. But we have seen already, that a division of the *whole* Union into small states cannot be made, without increasing the number so, as not only to endanger the safety of the federal government, but to render it absolutely impossible to administer it over them. There must then, at all events, be *some* large states ; and if so, is it not better that there should be many, and that they should be in size nearly equal ? Does not the objection after all, lie with more weight against a division, whereby most of the states in the Union, are made small, and a few remain large and powerful ? Cannot the large states, or any one of them, in this case, much more effectually oppose the federal government, or control it and the small states, by its influence and intrigue, and thus dominate over the whole ? Will not the inhabitants of the small states, feeling little interest in the welfare of the nation, or of any other state than their own, and being sensible of its insignificancy, be most likely to enlist without regard to consequences, in the ranks of the prevailing party, or servilely court the favour and follow in the train of some more powerful state to domineer over the rest ? The history of every confederacy, that has been formed, on the continent of Europe, teaches us, that this always has been the case. And perhaps the history of our own government might afford us some facts to confirm the opinion that it always will be so.

We have before observed, that the agency which the laws of the *federal* government will have, in managing the con-

cerns and forming the manners, habits and character, of the people of the individual states, will be very inconsiderable. All these, and in short every thing, which tends to improve and meliorate the condition of society, will almost entirely depend on the governments of the respective states, and the policy and economy, with which they are administered.

One of the most obvious effects of the division of a state, is the diminution of its wealth, power and influence, and of course the means of providing for the wants, and multiplying the enjoyments of its members. The effect, which it has in diminishing the revenue of the state, is of very serious consequence. The ability of a state to resist its enemy depends not so much on its population, as on the means it possesses of raising funds to meet a sudden emergency, and the improvements which it has made, for abridging labour, and supplying the want of men. In this, in fact, the strength of a nation most essentially consists. And as the strength of the federal government is but the united strength of the several states, that is diminished by this means.

In a wealthy state too, commerce, agriculture, manufactures, and the mechanical arts are always better encouraged, by means of a large capital employed for that purpose; and industry, as well as improvement, in every branch of business, is caused by the competition and emulation, that is excited among all classes of the community. By dividing a country into very small states, all the means of improvement are taken away—no great works can be undertaken—the several states will be comparatively poor, and must remain so—and the people having nothing to stimulate them, will be less enterprising and industrious—the country cannot support so numerous a population, and the people cannot enjoy so many of the comforts and conveniences of life.

The expenses of government in a large and wealthy state are but little greater than in a small one, provided the government is equally well administered in both; and the taxes therefore in the former are less burthensome to the community. The funds which the government can raise without distressing the people, or taking from the farmer and the merchant more than they can give without injury to them, will enable it to support literary and charitable institutions—encourage the arts and sciences—reward genius and patriotism—build works of magnificence and taste to adorn the country—and erect monuments to commemorate the deeds

of its illustrious men, to raise the enthusiasm of its citizens—excite among them an honourable emulation, and call forth all their energies in the service of their state and country.

The encouragement, which a large state can give to science and the liberal arts, is worthy of particular consideration; and more especially, in a republican government like ours, where a large proportion of the most respectable men, are engaged in commercial pursuits, and whose minds, unless enlightened by science and softened and refined by the arts, are liable to be intoxicated and corrupted by the love of gain. In such a government, and among a people, occupied with such pursuits, the cultivation of science and the arts alone can counteract, and render harmless, the baneful and deadly influence of avarice, and prevent the growth of that aristocracy of wealth, which is apt to take deep root in a republican soil, and unless early overtopped by science to shoot up, and by its malignant influence, blight every germ of virtue. In a commercial republic, where the people as a body, have so great a voice, in bestowing the rewards and honours due to merit, in assigning to every man his rank, and in determining the value of every thing, since they are less disposed to court Minerva and the Muses, than to pay blind homage to “that golden idol, that universal Baal of all nations, worshiped alike by Jew and by Gentile,” it is of the greatest consequence, that the government should be able, by the large funds, which it can raise, to support literary institutions and establishments, for the education of men of science, who by their numbers and influence in the community, may not only check this evil propensity, but enlighten the minds, expand the views, form the taste, and correct the morals of the people.

We shall not however now attempt to relate all the benefits that usually flow from the cultivation of science, and the liberal arts, nor all the evils that commonly flow from the neglect of them; nor undertake to shew how much the liberty, the glory, and the happiness of every country, in all ages of the world, so far as it has enjoyed these blessings, have been the fruits of the studies and labours of its men of science, and waxed and waned, accordingly as they have been patronized, or disfavoured. We hardly think at this late day of being asked by any intelligent man, whether his preceptor or Alexander, best served and most honoured his country; whether Cicero or the government under which he lived had the greatest influence on the people of his times;

or whether Lock or Marlborough did most to promote the cause of English liberty. We have not to contend with the monks of the tenth century, nor with the Rosseaus that succeeded them. We have indeed, now and then, found one, who endeavoured to inculcate the opinion, that every thing is taught in this country that is useful—that we have quite learning enough of all kinds—and since every one can read and write and dispute on politicks, that all science, which ought to be encouraged, has advanced farther towards perfection here than in any other country. But the number of these persons is so very small, and they are so much beyond the reach of argument, that it would be time lost to attempt to reason with them.

A more common, and therefore, a much more important error, which we are desirous to point out, for the benefit of those who have been accustomed to build their theories upon it, is the supposition, that by a division of the country into small states, the arts and sciences will be better promoted and advance faster towards perfection. The means of education, it is said are thereby brought home to every man's door—they are accessible to every one, even the humblest man in the community—genius, which is found quite as often in the hovel as in the splendid mansion, is invited from obscurity—the rivalry between the colleges in the different states, and between their literary men will excite ambition—and the number of offices which will in such case be greater, will furnish more means of rewarding men of talents and hold forth to them a more flattering prospect. All this at first view appears very plausible, and no wonder, that many have deceived themselves, by contemplating the subject only in this light. But those who maintain this opinion do not consider, that science cannot be attained without books and leisure, and that the scholar will not labour without an *adequate object*. They do not reflect, or they would know, that in a small state, the knowledge which men of letters, and all men in the liberal professions, can acquire of books, however emulous they may be, must unavoidably be narrowly circumscribed for the want of publick libraries and literary institutions to which they can resort—that as they can have no means of improving their minds, by extensive intercourse and familiar conversation, with men of eminence, their ideas must be visionary, and on many subjects extravagantly erroneous, and that they must be equally novices in science and in a knowledge of the world—that

they can have little publick, or private patronage—nothing to reward them, but some publick office or trust, with a meagre, pitiful compensation for their services, or the applause and support of the populace comparatively more ignorant as the state is smaller, and therefore more easily deceived—and that there can be little room for honourable emulation in scientifick attainments, where the blockhead can succeed quite as well as the man of science and talents, by making use of those arts, which the meanest capacity can learn to employ.

The greatest impediment to the advancement of the arts and sciences, has in fact been occasioned by the very system from the adoption of which they have expected to derive so much benefit. The zeal for erecting colleges, which has arisen partly from this mistaken opinion and partly from the pride which each state has taken in having a college, has been so great, that in almost every state in the Union, there is at least one, and in some two or three publick institutions, where the inhabitants of the state, who are destined for the learned professions or publick life, usually receive their education. These institutions depend wholly for their support, on the patronage of the governments and the inhabitants of the respective states, where they are established. No one thinks of endowing a college, that is not in his own state, or cares much about its concerns. Most of the states are quite too poor to supply their colleges with sufficient funds and furnish them with able professors in the different branches of science, and in some of the small states, these establishments are kept up chiefly by augmenting the number of their students, by the inducements they hold forth in the cheap terms, on which they offer to confer their degrees. A great mischief is therefore occasioned, by the multiplicity of petty schools, bearing the name of colleges or universities and having the power of conferring degrees, which, by courtesy, are all considered as entitling the graduate to the same privileges and advantages, in every part of the Union, without the means of giving their pupils a suitable education. These scantily-endowed and ill-conducted seminaries are year after year, turning out upon society a swarm of half-educated sophisters as candidates for the liberal professions and for publick patronage. This has already done much to depreciate, in the publick estimation, the value of a publick education. It has tempted many a duncce from the plough or the workshop, (where he might have been useful to himself and to the state) into a sphere

to which his talents are unsuitable, and where he becomes a burthen and a nuisance to society. It has discouraged literary ambition, and injured real merit, by doing away, in effect, every mark of literary distinction, and by crowding the different professions in many of the states with empiricks, sciolists, and impostors; men who have not studied to gain a good education in their profession, but to find out with how little knowledge they can successfully impose on the publick.

The smallness of many of the states in the Union, the want of wealth in all of them, and this system of education, which has been the consequence of it, have more than any other cause perhaps, retarded our progress as a nation, in scientifick pursuits. Even in our own state, where science has met with the earliest and best encouragement, our literary institutions and establishments, need more support than either the government or individuals are able to give them; and our system of education is far from being perfect, merely because we have not the means to make it so. The fine arts also, which have so great influence in improving the manners and the morals of society, have hitherto met with little attention, in any part of the Union, and must, as long as the states individually are poor, and have no large, and polished society of men of letters and leisure, who have a taste for elegant recreations and amusements, remain in a great degree neglected.

There is another consideration, worth the attention of those who advocate the division of the country into small states, in order that science may be promoted and men of genius encouraged, which while we are on this subject, we will barely mention. It is the effect which the want of independence and dignity, in a small state, will have in depressing the spirits, benumbing the faculties, and unnerving the exertions of the ablest and best men in the community. There is certainly a pride, derived from the greatness and respectability of the government, to which one belongs, that is the most powerful incentive to great exertions and great actions, and there is an humility derived from the smallness and insignificance of his nation, which generates an indifference in the man of talents to every thing great and noble, and causes a grovelling timidity, sluggishness and lethargy with all the defects and vices that usually attend such a disposition of mind. The smallness of many of the states in the union has caused some men of talents to emi-

grate from time to time, from their native state, in quest of better encouragement elsewhere. But they have, in this case, found many prejudices to combat, and many obstacles to overcome. On this account, most men even of brilliant talents, have preferred to waste away their lives in obscurity, where their influence on society has been wholly lost, rather than venture on an arena, where the chance is so unequal, and where success is so very uncertain; men, who had they lived in a great state, might have been ornaments to their country, but being unfortunately born in a small one, have died without being known. Indeed, although there may be some exceptions, the truth is amply confirmed by history, that small states have not usually encouraged the arts and sciences, or been the nursery of scholars, patriots, or great men.

Another opinion, in regard to small states, which seems to have been entertained by many is, that they are more favourable to the liberty and happiness of the citizen. Is this true? It will not be denied, that these depend on the wisdom, certainty and stability of the laws, and the proper administration of the government. Now beyond all question, the larger the state is, the less liable is the government to be suddenly changed, and the more uniform and steady is the administration of it. It becomes more difficult for one, or a few men, to usurp power, or prevail over the people—base frauds and impositions cannot be so easily practised on them—corruption cannot control them—they are not so easily managed by intrigue, or gained over by persuasion to do wrong—they are not so liable to be governed by sudden passion—quarrels between sects and private disputes do not so often disturb the peace of the state—the tribunal of the publick sentiment is more enlightened, more liberal and more impartial—party animosity is not so bitter, and does not so often show itself in the administration of the government—the officers of the government being selected out of a large community and rewarded by better salaries, are more capable of faithfully executing their trust, and less prone, and less able to abuse it—and the laws are more salutary, more certain, more stable, better interpreted, and more generally respected and obeyed. Nor is any one of the citizens more neglected in a large state than in a small one. He has the same right to vote, and the same chance for promotion when he merits it. He has more opportunities for enjoyment, and when he is

wronged, he has more certain means of redress. But it would be an endless task to point out all the benefits, which the citizen derives from living under the government of a large state. It cannot be doubted by any one, who will compare the advantages, which are enjoyed in such a state, with the innumerable evils arising from a small one, that his property, liberty and life, in the former are much more safe than in the latter.

It might be well if statesmen before they discover quite so much positiveness in their opinion, of the great advantages enjoyed by small states, and are quite so zealous to reduce their theories to practice, would consider how far, and in what respect, the manners and the morals of the people are likely to degenerate under a small government. Some effect (and certainly no very beneficial one) must unquestionably be produced by narrowing the circle, within which they move—shutting them out from the benefits of a large and polished society—limiting their views of the world—contracting the field of interest and ambition—confining their thoughts to the concerns of a small, instead of a large population—and subjecting them to live under a government and laws often ill-administered, and always more liable to change. We cannot now, however, enter into the discussion of this subject, but must leave our readers to exercise their own judgment, and form their own opinion in regard to it. From the view we have already taken, it appears, that by dividing the country into small states, the arts and sciences cannot be so well promoted in the several states, commerce and manufactures will not flourish so well, improvements of a publick nature, cannot be so well undertaken, and the inhabitants will not enjoy so much liberty and happiness, and that as it regards the union, its strength is weakened, the harmony of the national councils is disturbed, all *nationality* in feeling and character is lost, the federal government cannot be so well administered, even its safety is endangered, and the nation becomes more inefficient in war, and cannot prosper in times of peace.

It is not a little strange, that an erroneous opinion should have been formed, on this subject, from a view of the republican governments, that have existed before ours. Yet, even the history of the ancient Greeks has been often cited, to show the great prosperity and happiness of a people, living in small states; and many have gone so far, as to assert,

that, with a more intimate political union, by a common bond of confederacy, they would have been a complete model of a perfect government. It is impossible, at the present day to look through the long vista of so many centuries, and see distinctly the character of those times, nor do we think the history of that semi-barbarous age could furnish much useful information to the statesman, if it were perfectly well known. But if we take their history from the records that remain of it, we cannot suppose that the people in those petty states, did, at any time, enjoy much tranquillity or happiness, or are really worthy to be a pattern for any nation in this respect; and most of the evils to which they were subjected, seem to have grown out of the very system, which some politicians have so highly extolled. Their want of publick spirit, their domestick dissensions and civil wars, the bad administration of their respective governments, the private quarrels that kept them in perpetual fermentation, the insecurity of property, liberty and life, the persecution of the best, and promotion of the worst men in the community, and the indolence and vices of the people, may all be ascribed to the smallness of the states themselves. Pericles saw this, and would have established one consolidated government, embracing all of them, but, unfortunately for Greece, his countrymen (too much like many of ours perhaps) disapproved of his plan, and would not adopt it. We might, by recurring to history, point out a multiplicity of evils, that have arisen from small states, in every confederacy of ancient or modern date, on the continent of Europe. The Germanick confederacy, the Helvetick union, the Belgick United Provinces, and the states of modern Italy, all furnish volumes of incontrovertible proof. Our federal government, it is true, differs from all these; but it appears to us equally true, that no parchment compact, which we have made, no bond of confederacy, no power given to that government, and no authority or influence, which it has over the people, can *alone* preserve its existence, or secure the happiness of the union. *How far* the peculiar structure of our political fabric will shelter us from the evils, which all former republicks have suffered, is a question of curious and interesting speculation.

But we have gone quite as far as our limits will admit, and we fear, from a desire to combat and confute some erroneous opinions, which have found many advocates, we have

been tempted already to go a little farther into the regions of abstract speculation than many of our readers will patiently follow us. We cannot but indulge the hope, that our countrymen will foresee the evils and mischiefs likely to be produced by having our country "cut up into a multitude of little petty, clashing, tumultuous commonwealths," and will be wise enough to avoid them. This policy might answer well enough, in a barbarous age, when statesmen never thought of improving and ameliorating the condition of society; but at this period of knowledge and refinement, and in a country, that would take pride in advancing towards perfection in every thing that relates to human happiness, it cannot but be extremely pernicious.

In regard to the consequences, that will flow from the intended separation of Maine from Massachusetts proper, our readers will perhaps be better satisfied on a more minute examination. In looking over the reasons, given by the memorialists and those who have promoted a separation, we can find nothing satisfactory, and but little, that has not been urged over and over again, ever since the question has been agitated. And when upon investigation we find, that those are either built on false and groundless assertions, or clothed in loose and general terms, apparently for the purpose of concealing their absurdity, we do not think it would discover much want of candour, if we should suspect that the true reasons, which have persuaded many of its advocates to be so uncommonly zealous in bringing the measure about, are such as they would not think it prudent to disclose. If any weighty reasons for a separation did exist, surely one would think it could not be necessary to resort to falsehood, make use of chicanery, and appeal to the passions of the people rather than to their understanding. Why rummage over the musty records of a quarrel between the government of Massachusetts Bay, and a few obstinate magistrates, claiming to govern Maine, with doubtful authority, and in defiance of the will of a majority of its inhabitants, more than a century and an half ago? Why above all things, attempt to inculcate the childish belief, that Maine has been deprived of her liberty and reduced to a mere province, and that the cause they are contending for, is no less than that of her honour and independence? Honour and independence are charming sounds, and a freeman will always listen to them. But is Maine *now*, or was she *ever*, really a province of

Massachusetts? Does not history tell us that her inhabitants (wiser we fear than some of their descendants) almost unanimously applied to Massachusetts for protection, and desired to live under her government, and that a few men, *for the sake of their offices only*, were opposed to it? And long since that time, have not the inhabitants of Maine become parties to the same political compact with Massachusetts? And do they not enjoy all the rights and privileges under it, which Massachusetts enjoys? Have they not an equal share in the administration of the government established by it? Is not the body politic one and indivisible? or because Maine was *once* separate from Massachusetts, is that a good reason she should be so now? But Maine is by *nature* separate from Massachusetts. Is this a good reason to shew that she should be *politically* separate? Has *nature* marked out any exact boundaries for governments? Cannot the arm of the civil authority be conveniently extended beyond a few miles of water, and the *same* government be equally well administered, and the citizens protected by it, on one side of a river or bay, as on the other? Or must the boundaries of states be so drawn, as to make an agreeable figure on the map? This might please the eye of the geographer, but it is hardly worth the serious attention of the statesman. If we could now at will measure out the territory of each state in the union, anew, a more regular and equal, and perhaps a better division might be made. We would not however by any means, diminish any of the states, but rather study to unite and enlarge some of them, and thereby make them all in size as nearly equal as possible. It can hardly be disputed, but that the condition of the people of Rhode Island, would have been much happier at the present day, had they formerly, so far overcome their prejudices, and puerile notions, as to have united under one government with Connecticut. Vermont and New-Hampshire too, would unquestionably derive much advantage from an union. But it is useless to reason, with people whose local attachments and prejudices are so deeply rooted; if the sub-division of the states can be prevented, by shewing the mischiefs occasioned by such a policy, it is quite as much as we can have any reason to expect.

The extent of her territory, and the distance of Maine, from the seat of government, have been warmly urged as reasons for a separation. In looking at her geographical

situation on the map, we are apt to receive wrong impressions. The distance of the most remote part of Maine, from the seat of government in Massachusetts proper, appears, it is true, very considerable; but the conveyance by water, from every sea-port town, to Boston, is so easy, cheap, and convenient, that a greater part of the inhabitants, can go to and from the seat of government, where it is now, quite as conveniently as if it were located elsewhere, if not more so; and all the inhabitants of the interior country, whose average distance from the tide-waters is not more than fifty or sixty miles, will not find much more difficulty in coming to Boston, than the inhabitants of Hampshire, Berkshire, or the county of Hampden, and can come with quite as little expense; and in many respects, and particularly on account of the accommodations afforded to those who attend on the legislature, and the opportunity and convenience of transacting business of a different kind at the same time, which would of itself, necessarily require a journey hither, Boston is a more eligible situation for the seat of government, as it regards the inhabitants of Maine, than any other which they could select. At any rate, the inconvenience of coming to, and going from the seat of government, is not greater than the people in most governments, and in several of the states in this union experience, and when put in competition with the advantages to be derived from a large state, is not entitled to a moment's consideration. It would be a little more convenient, to be sure, if every man could have the seat of government before his own door, but this would hardly justify the erection of every small village into an independent state. There are always some inconveniences attending a large, as well as a small government, and this is one, which must be suffered for the sake of the benefits, which infinitely more than compensate for it.

As it respects the administration of the government, over so large an extent of territory, we can see no reason why it may not be administered over Massachusetts proper and Maine, as well as over either of these separately. As we have before shewn, the interests of the people can be equally as well understood, and provided for by the laws, and the laws can as easily be made known and executed, in the one case as in the other. The manners, habits, pursuits and character of the people are similar, and will continue to be so, as long as we remain under one government. It is diffi-

cult to conceive how the best interests of the people of the District of Maine collectively, can possibly in any instance, differ from the best interests of the people of Massachusetts proper, and while they are united, whatever can promote the welfare of either, must equally promote the welfare of both. This is certainly the surest pledge the people of the District of Maine can have or desire, that in all cases, their best interests will be promoted by the government under which they now live; and since the government is now more able, by the united wealth and resources of both parts, to accomplish any thing that may be undertaken, or provide for any of the wants of the society, this ought to be a very strong argument with them in favour of preserving the integrity of the state.

“But,” say the Memorialists, “Maine must at *some time* become a separate state, and why not *now*?” We confess we can see no reasonableness in the argument, that a separation ought to be made *now*, because it may at *some time or other*, nobody knows when, become necessary to effect it. The conclusion seems rather illogical or incomprehensible, to say the least. But we will not wrangle about it since we absolutely deny the first proposition. While our federal government endures, it will *never* be *necessary or politick* to divide the Commonwealth, whether we regard the welfare of the state itself, or that of the whole confederacy. If the constitution of our state government shall in forty or fifty years from this time be found not exactly suited to a large territory with a numerous and crowded population, and such a state of things as may then exist, a remedy can and must be sought for, by altering and amending it, and not by dividing the government and erecting a multiplicity of petty independent states within the territory, over which its jurisdiction now extends.

What is there then, that can render a separation at this time expedient or advantageous, either to Maine or Massachusetts, on the score of individual interest? Will the prosperity of Maine in any way be advanced by such a measure? The inhabitants of Maine have been told, that the expenses of government will not be so burthensome to them, if they should be separated from Massachusetts. We do not think it worth the while to spend much time in exposing the fallacy of this assertion. Those who are so blind that they cannot see it can be taught only by the assessor or tax-gath-

erer. Every one, who reflects, must know that as it will cost more to maintain two governments within the same territory with the same population than one, if Maine now pays no more than her just proportion (and in fact she does not even pay that) she as well as Massachusetts, must expend a much larger sum for that purpose after she is erected into an independent state. It will probably require more than one third as much to maintain a separate government in the District of Maine, as is now expended for the support of the government over the whole state. But Maine has at present only about one fifth of the taxable property in the Commonwealth, out of which she must raise all funds for this purpose, and now pays in taxes only about one ninth of the expenses of the government, and of course the tax on each man's property must be at least trebled. We shall say nothing about the very considerable sum which Massachusetts Proper annually pays for the support of the government more than her proportion, and the large sums expended for the benefit of Maine; but when we consider the great annual expense necessary to support a separate government, and the large amount of money that must be raised either by loan or taxes to defray the expenses of establishing it, and for the erection of publick buildings, we are led to inquire what equivalent she can possibly expect to obtain for this loss, or how she will be able to sustain the burthens imposed on her by a separation? It is pretended, that by the establishment of a separate government in Maine, much advantage will be derived from the active capital, employed to support it, which is now drawn out of the District to support the government in Massachusetts Proper. This also is a mere fallacy. It is perhaps a little doubtful whether, if it is really of any consequence, the balance of expenditure is not now in favour of Maine. It would be difficult at any rate by any correct principles of political economy we ever heard of, to shew how in the common course of things this can make any difference while Maine and Massachusetts are united under one government. In fact, it must be extremely evident to every one, who is capable of understanding any thing on this subject, that for the maintenance of a separate government in Maine, no less than forty thousand dollars above what she now pays, (and in a few years much more than that sum) must be taken annually from the capital, which would otherwise be employ-

ed in agriculture, manufactures and commerce. So much then every year will be taken from her means of supporting productive labour to maintain that, which is wholly unproductive; and Maine will derive the same benefit from it, that the farmer would derive from melting the cash, laid up to pay his labourers, into plate to decorate the shelves in his larder.

Maine must then look for very great pecuniary advantages to balance the increased expenses of supporting her government, to come from some other source than this. If any benefits of this kind, therefore, are to be derived from a separation, they must flow from the encouragement, that will thereby be given to commerce, manufactures, and agriculture. All these, however, we have before observed, flourish better in a large state for many reasons, than in a small one. And indeed as the connexion of Maine with Massachusetts cannot in any way be detrimental to any one of these branches of business or trade, and as (if the government can at any time give assistance and encouragement to them) Massachusetts will have more means of doing it, we are at a loss to know what possible benefit Maine can expect to gain in this respect. But let us be a little more particular. And to begin with commerce, on which the wealth and resources of the district have heretofore in a great degree depended. The new government it is very certain cannot promote it by any *regulations*, which it can make; for this will not be within its province. If any encouragement can be expected, it must be looked for in the change produced in the situation of the district. Now it is well known that commerce flourishes most where there is the largest capital; but the active capital employed in the district will be diminished in consequence of a separation, rather than increased, and the burdensome taxes imposed on the people, which will affect every other class of the community, can have no very favourable influence on the interests of the merchant. It cannot be expected that any of the sea-port towns will have a greater share of trade than they have had heretofore. It is highly probable that trade will be carried on through the same channels in which it has heretofore been conducted. The capitalist will still find it for his interest to reside in Boston. Here the merchant must charter his vessels and make his bargains, and here the trader must come to buy and sell, and obtain credit. The traders and all who depend on the capital which is fur-

nished by monied men in Massachusetts Proper, will find credit a little more difficult to be obtained, and see advances of capital made more cautiously and sparingly after a separation, when they live under a different government, are subject to different laws, and have less frequent intercourse with the people of Massachusetts Proper. The lumberer, many of the manufacturers, and the fishermen, will certainly derive no *benefit* from this. The embarrassment which will be thrown in the way of the coasting-trade, will be a very serious detriment to them and to a very numerous class of people, who are engaged in that business. Without considering the very great effect, which a decline of agriculture and manufactures will produce upon it, we conclude therefore, that commerce will not be in any degree *promoted* by, but will rather languish under, the new government.

What then have the farmer, the mechanick, and the manufacturer to expect from this new order of things? The injury inflicted on commerce will affect them, and the embarrassment of the coasting trade will most materially injure them. But this is not the heaviest calamity they will suffer. By the farmer and the mechanick in particular, the profits of whose labour is small, taxes are more sensibly felt than by any other class in the community. The burthen of supporting the government, of which they must bear a very considerable, nay, the principal part, will be a very sore affliction to them. The profits of his farm being wholly absorbed by taxes, the farmer must postpone all agricultural improvements, because he will have no means of making them. Having no hopes of saving any thing out of his very moderate income, more than just enough to satisfy the demands of the collector, he will have nothing to stimulate his labours; and having few of the comforts of life to cheer him, it would not be strange if in this situation of things, he should be disheartened, and suffer his lands to lie in a great degree uncultivated and barren.— In short, at the present time when the district is groaning under the burdens and distresses accumulated upon her by the late war, and when commerce on which her prosperity so essentially depends is palsied, the separation must have a most injurious effect on every class of people in the community. It will cast a new and darker cloud over the prosperity of Maine. And after the novelty of the government is worn off, it is to be feared the people will begin to

look around and deplore their unhappy condition, and (with much more reason for it than they have heretofore had) will once more seriously think of emigration. On this account, especially since the *mania* for emigration has hardly subsided, this measure, if it were possible that it should ever be expedient, comes now at a time peculiarly inauspicious.

It must be a most important object with Maine to increase her population, by encouraging immigration. But if, under these circumstances, she can retain all her own population, it will be as much as she will have any reason to anticipate. If the farmer and the mechanick have now no inducement to go thither, they certainly will not have any after the separation, when the prospect before them will every way be more gloomy and hopeless. The merchant will not go thither when he can reap nothing but disadvantage by it. No men of talents and education will, on any account, be persuaded to emigrate from Massachusetts Proper, and exclude themselves from the enjoyments of improved society, to vegetate in the wilds of the District of Maine, or to enjoy the best advantages that Maine can afford them. A few young men perhaps, expecting preferment under the new government, may be induced to try their fortune there, but these will mostly soon be disappointed and remove to some other place, or if they remain, will be of little benefit to the state. The migration into the district will gradually decrease. For it must be recollected, that it is made up chiefly of emigrants from this part of the state, and when the laws of the District of Maine, and the character of the people under their new government, undergo a change, as they naturally will, emigrants of this class will have as great an aversion to a removal into Maine as they now have to going to reside in New-Hampshire or Vermont.

This will materially affect the settlement of the wild lands, and operate a great injury in this respect both to Maine and Massachusetts. The Memorialists indeed, with their usual disregard to plain common sense, affect to tell us that the settlement of those wild lands may be better promoted by a government in Maine. It is very certain, however, that *Maine* can make no new regulations which it is not in the power of *Massachusetts* much more effectually to do, and which she will not be equally interested in doing. The act for the settlement of all the publick lands in Maine,

which provides for dividing them into townships, laying out roads, and offering advantageous terms to settlers, will by the separation become wholly inoperative, and the benefits that might be derived from it lost. But the most considerable obstacle to the settling of these lands, will be created by the division of them to be made between Maine and Massachusetts Proper. As the lands are to be divided into townships, and these divided between the respective states by lot, the townships held by each state must unavoidably be unconnected and lie in promiscuous disorder among each other. It will be impossible for either government, therefore, to do much, by way of improvement, without the consent and cooperation of the other. Is it very probable that the legislative bodies of the respective states will agree as to the manner in which improvements may be made, the measures to be taken and the sums to be laid out? But if a perfectly good understanding should subsist between them, will Maine be able to go on expending monies and making improvements in equal pace with Massachusetts? It is most certain, that she will not be able to raise monies to expend in this way. Will Massachusetts then undertake to make all the improvements, or make any great sacrifices to encourage emigration and settle the lands, while Maine lies by to reap the advantages of it? If we consider how tardy she has been heretofore in taking measures for this purpose, and that she will have fewer inducements to settle the lands after a separation, we shall find pretty good ground to believe, that her exertions will thereby be very much relaxed. In short, the separation and erection of Maine into an independent state by involving the people in debt—injuring the agricultural, and mercantile interests of the community—by discouraging emigration from Massachusetts Proper and other places into Maine—and by the division of the publick lands to be made in consequence of the separation between the two governments, (who may and very probably will pursue, partly from inclination and partly from necessity, a course of conduct not very different from that, which the land-holders and speculators have heretofore pursued) will have a very injurious tendency, in arresting the progress of the settlement of those lands, preventing the cultivation and improvement of them, reducing their value almost indefinitely, and checking the growth of the whole country.

Maine cannot therefore, as it seems to have been fondly anticipated by some, expect in any way to enrich herself by this measure, give a new and permanent life and vigour to her people, or encourage others to remove thither. A very small temporary benefit may be experienced by a few towns—a few office-hunters may possibly go thither in quest of promotion—and the people for a little while will be busily enough engaged in talking over the affairs of their new government and putting things in order under their new situation; but it will be fortunate if this artificial stimulus in the body politic does not like that often produced in the human system, end in a relapse into greater inertness and despondency.

But say the memorialists, “we have *now* no rallying point—no common centre—nothing to excite the pride of the scholar or prompt the ambition of the man of talents.” What! have the people of Maine then no common feelings with those, with whom they have unitedly grown up and prospered for so many years? Have they no common sympathies with their brave companions, who have toiled with them for independence, who have fought by their sides, shared in their dangers, and divided with them the laurels of victory? Is the preservation of the entirety, the dignity, and influence of one of the oldest and proudest states in the union “no rallying point?” Is the advancement of her interests, prosperity and honour “no common centre,” to which their laudable efforts, desires and hopes can be directed? Is the maintenance and improvement of the civil religious, and literary institutions of our land “nothing that can excite the pride of the scholar or prompt the ambition of the man of talents?” Among the states in the Union, Massachusetts has hitherto, from the earliest period of her history, marched in the front rank to fame. It was she, who first advocated the cause of liberty—it was she, who spilt the first blood in the glorious war of our independence—it was she, who bore the heat and burden of the day and won the brightest laurels in achieving it—it was she, in fact, who laid the corner stone of our great political edifice, and did more by her exertions than any other state to rear its lofty pillars and finish and adorn all the stately, splendid superstructure. She has not been more distinguished in her zeal to promote the cause of freedom than by her exertions to advance the interests of science and virtue—she can

boast of the most ancient and best literary institution on the American continent—she can boast of the wisdom of her laws and the unexampled purity of her morals—she can boast too (and she has much reason to be proud of it) that she has given birth to, and educated a long catalogue of distinguished men, who have shone among the first and brightest ornaments of our country. If this is not sufficient to unite and animate the hearts of *all* her citizens and stimulate their exertions—if the desire to become distinguished in such a state, and to be influential in promoting its welfare—if the ambition to preserve the glorious reputation, they inherit from their ancestors—to imitate their virtue and rival their renown—if these are motives insufficient to awaken the enthusiasm of genius and light up the blaze of emulation and patriotism, we are really at a loss to know what more powerful or honourable ones can be placed before them. Surely Maine when she is erected into an independent state, cannot afford any objects of meritorious ambition to be compared with these. On the contrary, we greatly fear that by a separation, which will cut short the apparently high destiny of this great state, both the inhabitants of Maine and Massachusetts will, in a great measure, lose that emulous pride, which so much depends on the rank which their state now holds in the union, and which is so salutary a political virtue, and that the scholar and the man of talents, feeling the diminished influence and importance of the government, under which they live, will sink into comparative indifference and lethargy.

The assertion of the Memorialists, that better encouragement can be given to science and literature, by a government to be erected in Maine, is certainly groundless and irrational. A very great difference will, in case of a separation, be very soon discoverable, in the characters and acquirements of her men of education. Many of them have, heretofore, received their education in Massachusetts proper. Hereafter, all literary men, and those destined for the liberal professions, will be educated in Maine. It will be impossible for her, exhausted as her resources will be, to put her literary institutions on a footing (in any degree nearly equal) with those of Massachusetts. Her literary establishments and institutions will indeed sustain an immense injury, by the separation. Her

men of science, therefore, who follow the liberal professions, or a publick life, for the want of the means, will not be so well educated as they are now. The want of a frequent intercourse and familiarity with literary men, in Massachusetts proper, and of the advantage, which they now have, of resorting frequently to her literary establishments, will be severely felt. How many of her men of talents may, for the want of encouragement, be induced to emigrate from there, from time to time, we do not undertake to say; but it is very certain, that the prospect to men of talents, who go thither after the separation, will be far less inviting than it is now.

In regard to the men, who will fill the publick offices, and the manner in which the government will be administered, it may appear invidious to make many very particular remarks. Maine surely will not boast of having more than her due proportion of men of talents; nor deny, that a large selection of better men, might be made from the whole state of Massachusetts, than can be made from a part of it. It will, therefore, be impossible, that she should have so learned and able men, on the bench, in the legislature, and in the councils of state, as now do honour to those stations, in Massachusetts. It will be a long time, before the courts of justice can vie with those, now established in this state, whose systems and rules of practice have been gradually brought to considerable perfection. A new code of laws will probably be established, the interpretation and construction of which, will be long unsettled; or even if those of Massachusetts are generally adopted, the courts of justice will not probably, in all cases, feel themselves bound, by the construction given to them in this state. Here will be a fruitful source of litigation, and property, and liberty will be much less secure.

In case of war with England (which God grant may not soon happen) she will find herself very much exposed to the operations of the enemy's forces, and feel in a peculiar manner the disadvantage of her new situation. For a considerable length of time, she will remain too poor and too weak to depend on her own resources. On the one side she will have the enemy's forces, who will be able to assail her in many different points, at the same time, and on the other, states, whose troops cannot be marched to her assistance, without the consent of their respective legislatures.

Depending, as in such case she must, chiefly on her own strength and resources, at least, on any sudden emergency, she will have reason to regret that her connexion with Massachusetts has been dissolved.

In regard to Massachusetts, we find with regret, that it has been the favourite opinion of some, that the contemplated separation would, in its consequences, be very beneficial to her. We apprehend, that this opinion has arisen, from a total ignorance, or want of consideration, of the increasing importance of the District of Maine, and the vast resources, which in a short time, if proper economy were used, might be derived from that part of the state. It has not been duly considered neither, we fear, how much, if our connexion continue, she will add, in future, not only to the wealth and strength, but to the dignity and influence of the state, nor how much of our present importance we shall lose by a separation. The moment the separation takes place, the influence, which we have heretofore had in the nation is gone for ever. The hopes, which we now have of rivaling even Virginia, in point of influence, in the national councils, must then be wholly abandoned, and we must fall from our proud eminence, never to rise again. The importance too, of retaining within ourselves, and under our own government and laws, all our increase of population, peopling the publick lands, augmenting the wealth and strength, and multiplying the resources of the state, are subjects well worth our consideration. We shall not indeed receive any immediate pecuniary advantages from the continuance of our political connexion with Maine ; for she has been, and is now, in this respect, rather a burden than a benefit to us. But it would seem very impolitick in Massachusetts, to take any steps to dissolve a connexion, which she has hitherto been at so much expense to maintain, at the very moment when she begins to discover a very great benefit, that will, at no very distant period, be derived from it. We shall not, however, enter into the subject at large. Our readers will judge for themselves, after reflecting on Mr. Greenleaf's statements and speculations, and making all due allowances, how much of the revenue of the state might, in fifteen or twenty years from this time, be drawn from the District of Maine, and how greatly, even in that short space of time, the resources of the state might be augmented by the continuance of our connexion. Her popu-

lation might probably, under auspicious circumstances, then be nearly equal to that of Massachusetts. And when we consider her advantages for commerce—her means of accumulating wealth—and the probable increase in the value of her lands—and consider too, that the expenses of maintaining the government will by no means increase in proportion, with the wealth of the state—in looking forward to that time, we can foresee too many benefits likely to result from our existing political connexion, not to feel much concern, when we see any measures hastily concurred in to dissolve it.

In relation to the terms and conditions, on which the legislature have consented to the measure, our limits will not permit us to say much. In fact, if the separation must take place, we think one or two hundred thousand dollars to be gained or lost, in a bargain like this, is comparatively of little importance, and hardly worth disputing about. The terms must be acknowledged to be uncommonly liberal, on the part of Massachusetts. The sacrifices, she has been willing to make, to meet the wishes of the people of Maine, the readiness, she has shewn to comply with them, and the honourable part, which she has acted throughout, ought to produce in them a conviction of her best intentions, in regard to the welfare of that part of the commonwealth. If the separation is not made, it ought to be recollected by those, who are desirous of effecting it, that no obstacles have been thrown in the way by Massachusetts. And the inhabitants of Maine will, in future, know how to estimate the empty declarations of those, who have complained that Massachusetts was hostile to their interests and envious of their prosperity.

When we view the important consequences, that will flow from this separation—when we consider that all our hopes of future greatness will be cut off—that the means we might soon have to encourage the arts and sciences, and put our literary institutions, and establishments, on a footing with any in Europe will be lost—and that we must become of little weight or influence in the union, we contemplate the prospect with melancholy, and feel extremely anxious to know, if we are destined to realize it. If the separation takes place, it will, for a time, establish the political character of both parts of the state, and give employment to

a few office-hunters in Maine, but unless we are greatly deceived in our expectations, the time will come, and shortly too, when by all honest men of all parties, it will be deeply regretted and deplored. If the people of Maine (as we most sincerely hope) have become enlightened by the recent discussion of the subject, so as to see all the benefits of a connexion with us, and all the consequences of a separation, and shall pretty generally vote against the measure, we shall welcome the event, as most auspicious to the welfare and prosperity of the whole State. And if this should fortunately happen, we hope so mischievous a measure will never be again brought before the publick for their approbation—that by both parts of the state, more correct and liberal sentiments will be entertained of each other—and that we shall in future grow up together in harmony, and prosper. But if we must part—if Maine has been persuaded, or deluded into the belief, that her interests demand it—however reluctant we may be to separate, we shall part with the best wishes for her future prosperity. We shall part with her, as the anxious parent does with the child she has nursed and educated, when, unexperienced, he is about to enter on the stage of life, and say to her, go, act for yourself, and God speed you.

*Abstract of Meteorological Observations for June, July and August,
taken at Cambridge.*

		Barometer.			Thermometer.		
		7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.	7 A. M.	2 P. M.	9 P. M.
June.	{ Greatest	30.46	30.44	30.36	73	97	80
	{ Mean	30.036	30.032	30.050	56.9	70.7	56.3
	{ Least	29.44	29.44	29.45	39	53	38
July.	{ Greatest	30.37	30.25	30.25	71	90	72
	{ Mean	29.954	29.913	29.947	60.7	76.2	60.8
	{ Least	29.62	29.60	29.67	52	68	52
Aug.	{ Greatest	30.47	30.48	30.46	75	88	76
	{ Mean	30.077	30.049	30.071	62.9	76.2	63.2
	{ Least	29.70	29.67	29.79	48	64	52

June 5th, rain in the night; showers on the 6th, and on the 14th and 15th. Rain on the 17th and 18th, and on the 24th and 27th. Whole quantity of rain 4.28 inches.

July 16th and 17th, little rain—shower in the morning of the 20th—great rain—viz. 3.41 inches on the 27th and 28th. Whole quantity of rain 4.85 inches.

August. Rain on the following days, viz. 1st, 2d, 4th, 9th, 12th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 23d, 26th, 31st. Whole quantity, 2.52 inches.

Average Mean heat of the summer months, as deduced from the observations of 23 years,

June 67.36. July 72.44. August 70.66.

Mean heat of those of the present year,

61.37. 65.9. 67.43.

The summer taken together, has been *five degrees and a third* colder than usual; a quantity equal to nearly half the ordinary difference between the coldest and warmest part of the day at this season of the year. It has been colder by almost two degrees and a half than any summer during the period above mentioned.

The sun still continues to be checkered with spots. A very large one has just passed off, and a cluster is now visible, consisting of seven or eight distinct portions.

Brunswick, June 1816.

Mean monthly temperature, from three observations each day, - - - 58.83°

Mean monthly temperature, maxima of heat and cold, - - - 59.05

Greatest heat,	- - - - -	96.
Greatest cold,	- - - - -	30.
Mean height of the Barometer,		29.833 inches.
Greatest monthly range of do.	-	1.120 do.
Quantity of rain,	- - -	1.41 do.
Days entirely or chiefly fair,	17	
do. do. do. cloudy,	13	

Directions of the winds in proportional numbers, viz.:
 N. W. 13—S. W. 11—S. E. 5—N. E. 4—N. 4—W. 4—
 S. 3—E. 1.

JULY, 1816.

Mean monthly temperature, from three obser-		
vations each day,	- - - - -	65.18e
Mean monthly temperature, maxima of heat		
and cold,	- - - - -	62.28
Greatest heat,	- - - - -	82.
Greatest cold,	- - - - -	33.5
Mean height of the Barometer,		29.770 inches.
Greatest monthly range of do.	-	630 do.
Quantity of rain,	- - -	1.60 do.
Days entirely or chiefly fair,	21	
do. do. do. cloudy,	10	

Directions of the winds in proportional numbers, viz.:
 S. W. 16—N. W. 14—S. E. 4—N. E. 3—S. 3—W. 2—
 E. 2—N. 1.



MISCELLANEOUS AND LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Survey of the route proposed for a canal to unite the Merrimack and Connecticut rivers.

THE proposed route for a canal to connect the Merrimack and Connecticut rivers, has been examined and surveyed by the Commissioners appointed for that purpose. Sunapee Lake, which was to supply the water for this communication, is situated upon what is called the height of land, near the middle between the two rivers. It is a fine large body of water, about twelve miles in circumference, and about a thousand feet above the level of the ocean. Though thus elevated, there is very little danger of

its bursting its banks. It is confined by rocks and mountains that form a barrier, from one to twelve or fifteen hundred feet high. There are considerable ponds that empty into it, over precipices of twenty or thirty feet. It has only one outlet and this is by Sugar river, which empties into the Connecticut a little below Windsor. This river at its source is sufficient for two mills in the driest season. It commences by a rapid descent over ledges of rocks and loose stones, and through a dark dreary and desolate forest, which seems scarcely to have been penetrated by any thing else. After three or four miles it grows more tranquil, and the traveller, who has followed its course, is again greeted with the face of heaven and with occasional marks of cultivation. At the distance of five or six miles it begins to wind gently through large tracts of fine rich mowing land, called *intervale*, and then falls suddenly into another level tract of the same kind. At Newport, a flourishing town seven miles from the lake, it receives two considerable streams, and from this place, it moves down a regular inclined plane, continually rippling over loose stones and pebbles for the space of twelve miles. At Claremont, four miles from the Connecticut, it is a quiet stream again, and is ornamented with beautiful meadows. Four miles from its mouth there are several abrupt falls, the greatest about twenty feet. Its whole course is a little more than twenty-four miles, and its whole descent eight hundred and fourteen feet. Its width varies from one to four rods. It has been lower this summer, than it has been before for many years. It was easily passed without boats. Indeed the survey was made for a considerable part of the route in the channel without much exposure to wet. There are no boats or canoes in the river, and no place where they could be used, except in the *intervalles* and mill-ponds. The river does not admit of rafts at any season, except for short distances, and is little used for this purpose. It is one of the finest mill streams in the country. At Claremont, besides a saw-mill, six grist-mills, and smith works, there are water works for turning, and making cyder, and one paper-mill. There is still a great number of mill privileges unoccupied. It is a common remark among those, who are engaged in these works, as it is indeed with other persons engaged in similar pursuits, that a mill will go faster in the night, than in the day time, among the proofs alledged were these: the turning lathe is required to move with a particular rapidity in order to make smooth work, and it is sensibly affected by a slight variation in the velocity of the water wheel, that turns it, on account of the multiplication of the motion; and the person, who has worked at it for a number of years, and who appeared to be an observing, intelligent man, affirmed, that it was his regular practice to diminish the quantity of water, when he returned to his work in the evening. He de-

clared also, that the mill for grinding apples, which is an over-shot, and is fed by a pump log, and of course does not admit of the quantity of water being increased or diminished, except by a variation of the head, would often stop during the day, when the apples happened to be hard, till more buckets were filled, and the power increased, when it would move again; but that when night set in, without any apparent change in the nature of the grinding or the kind of apples, nothing of this kind occurred. Other testimonies to the same effect might be mentioned, and from persons who had no communication with each other, and who appear to be equally satisfied of the truth of what they assert. The question is certainly worth pursuing, and may lead to important results.

On the east there are several streams leading to the Merrimack, that have their rise near Sunapee lake, the one which promises the easiest communication, issues from a pond nearly opposite to the head of Sugar river. This pond is about ten feet above the lake, and distant from it about two miles. The ground between, is a low wet swamp, with a gravelly soil and loose stones, covered with bushes and small wood. The highest point is about twenty feet above the lake, and distant from it about eighty rods. The stream which proceeds from this pond, falls away very rapidly, and soon gets below the surface of the lake. It is small at its commencement, and would not be sufficient alone to feed a canal. It was almost dry at the time it was examined, and although there were mills upon it, they did not appear to have been used for some time. It is soon increased however, by small brooks coming in, and at the distance of about twelve miles, it unites with another stream some what larger, which originates in Sunapee mountain, at the south end of the Lake. In proceeding from the Lake to this stream, there is a gradual ascent for about one hundred and twenty rods to a ledge of granite, which forms the summit of the bar, and is elevated seventy-four feet above the surface of the Lake. The declivity to the east is rather more rapid. At the distance of ninety rods from the highest point, the ground is on a level with the waters of the lake, and at the distance of ninety rods farther, is the brook just referred to. The country here is exceedingly rough, wild and rocky, the descent very rapid, and the course of the stream, which is hardly sufficient in this place to turn a mill in a dry season, is perpetually over rocks and precipices, along a kind of valley, formed by the meeting of two hills, that rise abruptly on each side; till at the distance of about five miles and a half from the lake, the country is occasionally diversified by level tracts and cultivated fields.—The stream now begins to assume the character of a river. In its progress through the town of Warner, from which it derives its name, there are several falls affording excellent mill seats, but for

the most part, it is a smooth and gentle current from one to three rods wide, and deep enough on an average, for a small boat or raft. On the borders of Hopkinton, about six miles from the Merrimack, it empties into the Contoocook, a large and beautiful stream, with a deep channel and high banks. This river is as well fitted for boating, as any part of the Connecticut or Merrimack, to within about three miles of its mouth, where it begins to fall over rocks and stones and continues a rapid descent till it reaches the Merrimack. The country bordering upon the two rivers, is a level pine plain with some low swampy land, elevated about twenty-four feet above the surface of still water in the Contoocook, and one hundred and forty-seven feet above the Merrimack at the foot of Sewall's falls. The whole distance from the lake in this direction, is thirty-two miles, and the whole fall eight hundred and seventy-three feet. The distances were measured with the chain, and the fall ascertained by the usual levelling process, Barometers were also used rather by way of experiment than as a certain method of determining small heights, where great accuracy is required. The following is a fair specimen of the results thus obtained, compared with those, which were furnished by the levelling instruments.

From the Lake to the highest point of the bar,		<i>Barometer.</i>	<i>Level Ins.</i>
		67	74
From the Lake to Ramond's bridge,		431	444
From the latter place to Davis's Mills,		268	253
do.	Baker's Mills,	41	54
do.	Foot of Sewall's falls,	121	123
Whole height		861	873
From the lake to Capt. Young's Mill,		108	112
From the latter place to the bridge in			
Newport,		309	318
do.	Claremont,	129	156
do.	Surface of the Connecticut,	238	228
		784	814

Most of these estimates by the Barometer are the means of several observations, that differed considerably from each other. The barometer used was a new one, lately imported, of Sir Henry Englefield's construction. Care was taken to have observations made at the same time with fixed Barometers, in the vicinity of Concord and at Cambridge, for the purpose of applying a correction for the variation of the weight of the atmosphere. It is believed, that with good instruments and careful observations, frequently repeated in settled weather, this method will be found sufficiently accurate, where the object is merely to compare different routes with each other, whether for water or land transpor-

tation, and to make a general estimate of the expense, that would attend the execution of the work proposed.

A full report, accompanied with plans, and more particular details, will be laid before the Legislatures of this state and of New-Hampshire, by their respective commissioners.

[The great elevation at which the waters of Sunapee Lake, appear to lie above the rivers on either side, would seem to present almost an insurmountable obstacle to the apprehensions of those, who are unacquainted with the various modes by which in Europe, such difficulties are overcome. We are happy to state, that in addition to those in use there, we have in our own country, recently seen invented a mode of rising from one level of a canal to another, by a perpendicular lift at once, of fifty to an hundred feet. Mr. Benjamin Dearborn, the ingenious inventor, has exhibited his working model to many persons skilled in machinery and civil engineering, and received their unqualified approbation. This mode of rising will supercede the use of locks, whenever the lift is great. The expense is supposed to be considerably less in proportion.]

Fine Arts.—Mr. Stuart has taken a likeness of Dr. Kirkland, which was exhibited in the publick rooms of the University on the day after Commencement.

Opus par [subjectae] materiae.

The artist has made the features of the President as evident to the sight, as his virtues and talents will be in the memory of the good and intelligent. A gentleman, writing to his friend, speaks thus of Mr. Stuart. "He is not merely the copier of forms and features, he is the painter of mind. His portraits are never unmeaning, except when his subjects are so. His magical pencil brings from the canvass, not only a living and intelligent being, but one of a distinct and marked character. The expression which his powerful pencil is always able to seize and to fix, you recall as the happiest of your friends, and one upon which you can dwell with the greatest pleasure."

Mr. Fisher continues to gratify the publick with the productions of his pencil. Connoisseurs say, that every successive landscape of this promising artist, displays some improvement in the design, the colouring, or the management of light and shade. He has a fair title to his rising reputation, by his genius, and by the industry and enthusiasm with which he devotes himself to his profession. It is to be hoped, that the activity of his observation and invention, will secure him against the monotony and uniformity, to which his department of the art is liable. This country does not offer many facilities for acquiring the science of painting, but obstacles ought to be only excitements to those, who are able to overcome them.

Colonel Sargent has now nearly completed his great picture of *Christ's entry into Jerusalem*. The size of the canvass is sixteen feet by thirteen, and a large number of figures are introduced. The subject is treated in an epick manner, and the execution of many parts of the picture is excellent. The grouping, the character of the heads, the eagerness of the disciples and followers to place themselves near their divine master—the exultation and movement of the vast croud that follows him—the background of the picture, filled with the walls and edifices of Jerusalem, and distant mountains, are parts of this grand composition, which arrested our attention. The artist is entitled to more praise, when we consider the disadvantages which arise from being almost completely insulated. We think the publick will be highly gratified with this painting, the most considerable historical picture that has ever been painted in this country. We shall dwell upon it more particularly on some future occasion.

Literary Intelligence.

We have met with no work more interesting for many years than the Memoirs of *Madame Larochejaqueim*. Unquestionable facts, which have all the wildness of romance, are narrated in a style of the utmost simplicity and modesty. When it is considered that this lady, bred at the Court of Versailles, married and entered life at the age of nineteen, a short time previous to the memorable massacre of the 10th of August. That from this point of splendour, she was transported almost immediately to La Vendee, to be engaged in all the scenes of terrible war. That her children were born and died in the course of it, that she lost her husband, her father, and all her friends, and was at last reduced to live two years in the disguise of a wretched peasant, tending sheep and cows in the fields, and often changing her dwelling, being always pursued by the ruthless agents of the republick, we can hardly imagine a greater contrast of situation, or one involving a greater variety of adventures. Besides the personal interest felt for the fair author, and a very strong interest is excited for the brave, virtuous Vendean, and the singular warfare they carried on. It is impossible to cite such a remarkable instance of practical liberty and equality, and assertion of private rights, though they were defamed, harrassed, and nearly exterminated by the sanguinary monsters, who made war in their name, and had the words in their mouths continually.

Cummings and Hilliard, have published a collection of practical forms of Conveyancing, by Benjamin Lynde Oliver, Esq. The forms are well selected. The notes are judiciously made, and discover a habit of thorough and accurate research.

Judge Reeve of Connecticut, has published a volume of his lectures on the domestick relations of Baron and Feme, Parent and Child, Guardian and Ward, Master and Servant, and on the powers of Chancery; with an Essay on the terms Heir, Heirs, and Heirs of the body. We hope he will meet with sufficient encouragement to proceed in giving to the publick his discourses on the other branches of the law. All who have heard the venerable judge lecture, speak of him in terms of the highest admiration and respect. This volume confirms the opinion which his pupils had already disseminated. There is a remarkable simplicity and persuasiveness in the style. He states settled points with clearness, and brings to the discussion of agitated questions, profound learning, and a fair and liberal mind. He arranges and compares authorities with great skill, and seems perfectly at ease and at home, among the intricacies and subtilties of legal science. There are some repetitions, which, though very well in the lectures, when delivered to an auditory, are faults in the book. The work is imperfect also, in as much as it wants that important, and almost essential part of a law-book, an index.

In the eighth chapter, Judge Reeve treats of the contracts of married women. While Lord Mansfield was on the bench, it was decided in England, that husband and wife may voluntarily separate in such a manner, that the wife may bind herself by contract. Lord Kenyon, and the other judges, have since attempted to over-rule that opinion. Judge Reeve defends it, though with some qualification; he thinks, that in case of a separation of husband and wife by deed, the wife is able to contract, and is legally bound by her own acts. He does not agree with Lord Mansfield in regard to the principles, on which his opinion is founded.

The twelfth volume of the Massachusetts Reports has lately been published. This is a work of which the people of Massachusetts may justly be proud, on account of the legal learning it embodies—the encouragement given by the legislature to its publication—the accuracy and faithfulness of the reporter—and the style in which it is executed. It is said in the advertisement to the 12th vol. “perhaps a more eligible course for the future, will be to omit some of the decisions of a less important character, and to insert in these reports, the substance of the arguments at the bar. The object in making reports, is to inform the people how their laws are administered; by giving a greater importance to arguments and opinions, and to induce both judges and lawyers to investigate questions laboriously, and introduce a thorough and skilful mode of transacting business; and to settle doubtful points, and render the administration of the law uniform

and stable. We think that these purposes will be better effected by the course proposed in the advertisement. It is left to the discretion of the reporter, not only to select cases, but also the facts and arguments in each case that are worth reporting. Sometimes a lawyer will very strenuously urge a point, when the law is clearly against him, either because he mistakes the law, or because he doubts where others have long since decided. Now, though the advocate has the privilege of tiring the court with such arguments, the reporter ought not to extend this privilege to his readers. On the other hand, when a point is doubtful, and, as Sir Roger remarked, much may be said on both sides, it is desirable that the reader may have an opportunity of viewing it in all the lights in which it can be placed by the learning and ingenuity of the judges, and the counsel of either party. Questions of this sort are those, in regard to which, reports are of the greatest importance.

In the *Literary Panorama* for August, there are some remarks on one of our Andover pamphlets, which contain the following specimens of geographical science. "*The provinces known by the name of Massachusetts, were among the first peopled in America, and they had to boast,*" &c. The following is a note to another passage: "*By this expression, is doubtless intended New-England, or rather the middle region, between Massachusetts Proper and Connecticut, the most enlightened part by far of the United States.*" This equals the knowledge of the Editor of one of the principal London newspapers, who lately warned the English nation of "*the dangerous designs of the American government upon the Mississippi!*"

Hedge's Logick.—Professor Hedge, of Cambridge, has published a very excellent elementary treatise on Logick, which has been adopted for the purposes of recitation, and as a text-book of lectures, both at Cambridge and Bowdoin College. This work will be more particularly noticed in our next number.

A Cattle Show is to take place at Brighton, on the 8th of October, under the patronage of the Massachusetts Agricultural Society. A ticket dinner will be provided. It may be hoped, that the publick generally, will encourage this useful festival. On the first show, the animals exhibited for prizes, cannot be expected to be so excellent, as they will certainly become hereafter, if the institution is kept up. Nothing tends more to the improvement of the breeds of all kinds of useful animals than exhibitions of this sort; and as cattle and swine form one of the great staples of the Eastern States, every thing that can tend to meliorate them is of the utmost importance.

Leipsick Fair.—The Late Leipsick Fair was attended by several Greeks from the Seven Islands and the Morea, who purchased a considerable part of an elegant impression of the principal Greek and Roman Classicks, edited by Schaifer, Herman, Beck, &c.

To Correspondents.

We have received an article written in defence of Capt. Porter's Journal, against the attack made upon it in the twenty-sixth number of the *Quarterly Review*. The writer animadvertes on the illiberality and national animosity displayed in the review of Porter's Journal, and indeed in the *Quarterly Review* generally. This he illustrates by a quotation from the 354th page, and by pointing out a variance between the statements of the Reviewer, and the letters of Capt. Hillyar, in regard to the conduct of Capt. Porter during the engagement between the *Essex* and *Phœbe* and *Cherub*. He introduces a quotation from Commodore Byron, in confirmation of what Capt. Porter says of the danger of doubling Cape Horn, in the month of February. Byron entered the Straits on the 17th of February, and thinks that his people suffered greatly, because "he passed the straits just as the sun was approaching the vernal equinox, when in that high latitude, the worst weather was to be expected."

We respect the strong American feeling, which the writer exhibits, and are obliged to him for his disposition to relieve us of part of our labours. We regret that we are prevented from inserting the article, both because we have already devoted twenty seven pages of the second number to Captain Porter's Journal, and because the character of the *Quarterly Review* is now well understood in this country.

A friend has made an urgent remonstrance against the article in this Journal, entitled "*Books relating to America*," and we notice it, because we well know that many, perhaps a large majority, may join with him in opinion. There are a few persons, however, who have expressed their satisfaction with this particular article, and read it with more pleasure than any other, which to those who cannot read it at all, may seem strange and almost incredible. We propose, however, to continue it, because it was part of our object, indeed our chief design to notice American Literature, not only that which is contemporary, but to take a retrospective glance, at its earliest specimens, most of which have now become extremely rare. In doing this, ease is not consulted, for much of this reading is extremely irksome, tedious and unprofitable. We have *bona fide*, read through every one of the books we have noticed, and sometimes after reading through a

volume, hardly find a sentence to be extracted, or a reflection excited. But even in this case, the labour is not wholly lost, since by commencing this *Catalogue raisonné*, we spare to others who are making researches into the history of their country, the disappointment of perusing a volume that is not worth the pains. The task is a humble one, but it may not be wholly without use and entertainment to those, who have a taste for such investigations.

In the brief notice in the last number, of the recent visits by some scientific men, that have been made to the mountains of New-Hampshire, etc. an error was made in supposing that the barometer used in ascertaining the height of the Monadnock was defective. Mr. J. F. Dana, who ascended that mountain, informs us, that the instrument he employed, "was the improved mountain barometer of Sir H. Englefield, corrected by the standard barometer of the University; it was compared with that barometer before we went, and after our return, and was found not to vary 500th of an inch." A particular account of this mountain will be found in the last number of the N. E. Medical Journal.

The publication of an anecdote from Grimm's Memoirs, in the Boston Daily Advertiser, occasioned an application from a friend of ours to President Adams for a statement of facts respecting it, which that venerable statesman kindly communicated. We received the papers too late for insertion in the present number, but they will make an article in our next, which will be read with interest.

TO SUBSCRIBERS.

We regret that some of our distant subscribers have not received the numbers of the Review, so early as they wished.—There has probably seemed to them to be more delay, than there really has been, since they may have supposed, that the numbers were published at the beginning of the months, by which they are dated, whereas, they often have not come out till the middle of the month, and sometimes later. Our friends will recollect also, that the only safe and convenient, and in some instances, the only practicable conveyance is by water, which is necessarily liable to some delay and irregularity. The numbers shall be put in the way of being transported, as soon as they are published, and our correspondents and agents are requested to give us information, if we do not choose the best mode of conveyance.

